DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 119 386 EA 008 043

AUTHOR	Marvin, Michael; And Others
TITLE	Planning Assistance Programs to Reduce School Violence and Disruption, and Appendices.
INSTITUTION	Research for Better Schools, Inc., Philadelphia, Pa.
SPONS AGENCY	National Inst. for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (Dept. of Justice/LEAA), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	Jan 76
NOTE	247p.; Some pages of text and some charts may be of marginal legibility due to quality of original document; Best copy available
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.83 HC-$12.71 Plus Postage
DESCRIPTORS	Bibliographies; Costs; Elementary Secondary Education; Federal Aid; *Federal Programs; Financial Support; *Program Descriptions; *Program Development; Questionnaires; Schools; *School Vandalism; *Violence

ABSTRACT

The central purpose of this project was to provide an information base that the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) can use in planning programs to help school personnel cope more effectively with the problem of violence in their schools. The efforts to provide an information base were organized into four tasks: to determine the nature and extent of the problem of school violence, to determine what efforts are being undertaken in schools to reduce school violence, to determine what kinds of help schools need, and to determine how other federal programs help schools solve specific problems. The federal programs examined are Right to Read, Drug Abuse Education program, the Civil Rights Training and Technical Assistance program, the Dropout Prevention program under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) Title VIII, Teacher Corps, and ESEA Title III. The recommended program emphasizes the provision of technical assistance to local agencies by regional staffs of experts. The program would be given overall direction and support at the national level. An extensive bibliography is included in the appendices. (Author/IRT)

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PLANNING ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS TO REDUCE SCHOOL VIOLENCE AND DISRUPTION

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Prepared under Grant No. 76-JN-99-0002 from the National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the author and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the U.S. Department of Justice.

EA 008 043

PLANNING ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS TO REDUCE SCHOOL VIOLENCE AND DISRUPTION

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January, 1976

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS		iii
Chapter		
I	PURPOSE AND PROCEDURES	1
II	NATURE AND EXTENT OF THE PROBLEM	12
III	CURRENT ACTIVITIES IN SCHOOLS	43
IV	NEEDS FOR ASSISTANCE	70
V	REVIEW OF FEDERAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS	88
VI	THE RECOMMENDED PROGRAM	114
REFERENCE NOTES		

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

If complete, our acknowledgments would be longer than the report itself without doing justice to all of the people who willingly gave their time and efforts to help shape a national strategy designed to help schools turn the corner on violence and disruption in the schools.

Members of the Advisory Committee--listed below--provided the direction for our efforts.

Thomas Doherty, Executive Committee Member
American Association of School Administrators

Homer Elseroad, Director of Elementary/Secondary Education Services
Education Commission of the States

Cecil Gilliatt, President
National School Boards Association

Cornelius L. Golightly, Board of Directors Member and Past President
Council of the Great City Schools

Joseph I. Grealy, President
National Association of School Security Directors

Marion A. McGhehey, Executive Secretary
National Organization on Legal Problems of Education

Willard McGuire, Vice President
National Education Association of the United States

J. William Rioux, Senior Associate
National Committee for Citizens in Education

Albert Shanker, President
American Federation of Teachers

The Advisory Committee members were extremely generous with their time--spending two full days in Advisory Committee meetings, and providing frequent correspondence and review.

Hundreds of educators spent hours giving us candid and detailed information on efforts underway in their schools to deal with specific forms of violence and disruption within their unique situations.

Over a hundred people with a personal interest in and experience with the problem of school violence participated in our working conferences. These groups included teachers, school board members, principals, security directors, parents, superintendents, and students. We have never worked with more dedicated people--willing to present their views, listen to others, and try earnestly to recommend the best approach. The students set the tone of the conferences by insisting that the participants focus upon reality. They held their own in the discussions and kept every one of us honest.

We especially want to thank CEMREL--Jim Winters in particular--for arranging the St. Louis conference and Bill Lucas and Kim Wells of the Los Angeles Unified School District for arranging our West Coast conference.

The LEAA staff met our every expectation for assistance. In all, at least ten Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention staff members participated in various activities related to the project. We would particularly like to thank John Greacen and Phyllis Modley who matched us stride for stride through a horrendous schedule designed to collect the necessary data in the shortest period of time to enable LEAA to make the best decisions on its role in reducing school violence and disruption.

Finally, I would like to thank our staff--many of whom forgot where they lived during this project. Sheila Marshall and Jim Nagy met deadline after deadline in producing the necessary materials, while Joan Clymer made

sure that our report made sense. Fran Riley did an amazing job of organizing our three working conferences--scheduled one week apart in three cities across the country. John McAdams made my job bearable by handling administrative details of the project while coordinating the collection of information on over 100 promising practices currently in use across the country.

My coauthors not only put pen to paper to produce this report but also provided the conceptual leadership that made it possible for us to deliver on every objective of this planning grant.

Now that this brutal but satisfying effort has been completed, the project staff is in complete agreement with a comment made by a participant during one of our working conferences--"I just hope it doesn't stop here."

Michael D. Marvin
Project Director

CHAPTER 1

PURPOSE AND PROCEDURES

PURPOSE AND PROCEDURES

The Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA), the agency charged with implementing federal crime control programs, decided in the spring of 1975 to seek information which would help them decide on a course of action to reduce violence in schools. Staff discussions between LEAA and Research for Better Schools (RBS) resulted in the decision to initiate a planning effort that would provide a basis from which LEAA could launch a federal assistance program. From the outset, the four assumptions listed below influenced the direction of this project:

> Problems of violence and disruption in schools are widespread.
>
> There is sufficient interest and concern about the problem to justify a national effort.
>
> Any program adopted should be responsive to the needs of school people.
>
> Any program adopted should be economical in view of current LEAA resources.

The central purpose of this project was to provide an information base which LEAA can use in planning assistance programs designed to help school personnel cope more effectively with the problem of violence in their schools. The specific study objectives are listed below.

- To establish a working relationship between LEAA and the educational community;
- To provide an information base that LEAA can use for planning purposes; and
- To recommend a course of action that LEAA can initiate to provide support for reducing violence in schools.

To achieve the objectives outlined above, the Research for Better Schools (RBS) staff developed a number of different strategies and activities designed to capitalize on the expertise existing within the educational community. Figure 1 provides an overview of the activities related to specific project objectives.

To achieve the first objective detailed above, RBS formed an Advisory Committee to enable key executives from various major educational associations to meet with LEAA staff and RBS staff to exchange ideas on how this planning effort should be conducted. In addition, RBS involved LEAA staff in a series of working conferences which included parents, students, teachers, principals, superintendents, and security directors in discussions about the nature and extent of the problem and the kinds of assistance educators need.

To provide an information base which LEAA can use for planning purposes, the RBS staff organized their efforts into four tasks:

- The first task was to determine the nature and extent of the problem of school violence. To obtain this information, project staff conducted a review of currently available literature on the problem. Information providing additional insight into the problem was gathered in the three working conferences as well as in our telephone survey of educators involved in programs designed to reduce the problem. Chapter 2 reports our findings.

- The second task was to determine what efforts are being undertaken in schools to reduce school violence. To obtain this information, project staff conducted a telephone survey of educators involved in projects or activities designed to ameliorate the problem. Additional information on such activities was gathered in our literature search and at the working conferences. Chapter 3 reports our findings.

Objective	Project Activities					Results
	Advisory Committee	Literature Review	Telephone Survey	Working Conferences	Review of Federal Assistance Programs	
1. To establish a working relationship between LEAA and the educational community	●			●		Chapter 1--Purpose and Procedures
2. To provide an information base that LEAA can use for planning purposes:						
a. Determine the nature of the problem of violence in the schools		●	•	•		Chapter 2--Nature and Extent of the Problem
b. Determine what efforts are currently underway to solve the problem		•	●	•	•	Chapter 3--Current Activities in Schools
c. Identify the kinds of help schools need in order to cope with the problem		•	•	●		Chapter 4--Need for Assistance
d. Determine the experience of federal programs in providing assistance to schools					●	Chapter 5--Review of Federal Assistance Programs
3. To recommend a course of action that LEAA can initiate to provide support for reducing school violence	●	●	●	●	●	Chapter 6--The Recommended Program

● • Major Activities

● • Supplementary Activities

Figure 1. Overview of Project Activities

- The third task was to determine what kinds of help schools need. To obtain this information, project staff conducted a series of working conferences with educators to determine how they defined the problem, learn what approaches they used to attack the problem, and determine what kinds of assistance educators need. Further suggestions on the kinds of help educators need were collected in our literature search and telephone survey. Chapter 4 reports our findings.

- The fourth task was to determine how other federal programs help schools to solve specific problems. To obtain this information, project staff conducted a review of six federal assistance programs and interviewed a small number of U.S. Office of Education staff. Chapter 5 reports our findings.

Finally, in order to recommend a program which LEAA could initiate, project staff drew on all of the information gathered in the literature search, the telephone survey, the working conferences, and the review of federal assistance programs. Chapter 6 presents the results of this effort--a recommended program which we feel meets the criteria implicit in the assumptions upon which this planning effort was based.

PROJECT PROCEDURES

As indicated in Figure 1, five basic procedures were followed in the course of this study. These information-gathering activities included (1) our work with members of the Advisory Board who provided direction for the study, (2) an extensive literature search to compile a reference library on the subject of school violence, (3) a telephone survey to collect information on programs designed to reduce school violence, (4) a series of three working conferences in cities across the country where various interested members of the educational community supplied extensive assistance, and (5) a review of the experience of several federal programs in providing assistance to schools. Each of these activities is discussed below in more detail.

Advisory Committee

The RBS project staff invited some of the educational organizations most closely involved in the problem of school violence to name a key executive to serve on an Advisory Committee. Early in the project, Advisory Committee members attended two meetings and were asked (1) to review our plans, schedules, and instruments to verify that the most important questions were being addressed in this project and (2) to offer suggestions with regard to people who should be interviewed, programs which should be examined, and studies which should be analyzed. Later in the project, the Advisory Committee (1) reviewed the summary information collected during other project activities and (2) critiqued the options for a recommended program which RBS staff had developed on the basis of their reading of

this information. The Advisory Committee also maintained both telephone and letter contact throughout the project and critiqued this report before our final revisions were made.

Literature Searches

From our literature searches, a library has been assembled which contains approximately 300 publications on the nature of the problem of school violence and other related topics. This collection is organized according to the following three content areas:

- Nature and Extent of the Problem. This category includes publications documenting the need for programs to reduce school violence, research studies dealing with the incidence and causes of crime in schools, congressional testimony, journal articles, and newspaper clippings.

- Current Activities in Schools. This category includes descriptions of programs used by local schools and/or districts in their attempts to reduce school violence. These program descriptions are intended to provide information that will help school personnel to select and implement programs appropriate to their situations.

- Federal Assistance Programs. This category includes information gathered during our investigation of federal funding strategies. It includes program descriptions, regulations, criteria, progress reports, and evaluation data.

Our literature searches involved the use of automated information retrieval systems to search data bases covering education, criminal justice, psychology, and government sponsored research reports. The Bibliography provides a list of potential sources of current information and experience related to the problem.* Continuing library research was employed, as needed,

*Appendix A contains the Bibliography developed.

to verify and supplement the data being fed into the information base from various other sources.

Telephone Survey

RBS staff conducted a telephone survey of current activities for reducing school violence by contacting school practitioners. We used a referral strategy to identify individuals experienced in developing programs to reduce violence in schools. Referral sources included Advisory Committee members, RBS personnel, LEAA personnel, and school practitioners who had worked with RBS. Additional referrals were obtained by asking the practitioners surveyed to refer RBS staff to other practitioners. RBS staff also contacted some people mentioned in various periodicals and special reports.

More than three hundred educators were contacted by telephone and interviewed on the problem of violence in their schools and their efforts to solve it. Also, a number of personal interviews were conducted with project leaders in order to gain first-hand knowledge of current programs that seem to be effective.

The survey covered all regions of the United States including large, small, and medium-sized districts, as well as urban, rural, and suburban communities. The information gathered in the telephone interviews and the supporting materials provided by the people interviewed were used in preparing over 130 program descriptions. Each description includes the purpose of the approach selected, the strategy employed, day-to-day activi-

ties, evaluative data, and demographic information. The program information file contains approximately 500 pages of descriptive materials plus supporting documents.

Working Conferences

Three working conferences were conducted to obtain information and recommendations from members of the educational community on the problem of violence in schools. The conferences were held in cities in the East Coast, West Coast, and Central regions of the country to achieve broad geographic representation. Using telephone survey contacts as a starting point, RBS staff collected the names of teachers, parents, counselors, youth services professionals, state education department officials, and others who are knowledgeable about the problem. Conference participants were selected from this pool of names. In addition, students from schools in and around the three host cities were invited to participate. More than 100 people representing every section of the educational community participated in these three conferences.*

Participants in each conference were assigned to small working groups led by RBS staff. Each group included people who are concerned with the problem and who have taken the initiative from the perspective of their specific roles within the educational community. These small groups worked through a series of structured activities designed to elicit their perceptions on the nature of the problem, their knowledge of programs being con-

*Appendix B contains information on participant distribution by type of educator and geographic representation, together with lists of the actual participants.

ducted to reduce school violence, their assessment of the kinds of assistance school systems need to solve the problem, and their recommendations on the kinds of assistance LEAA might provide.*

Review of Funding Approaches

To obtain information on alternative funding approaches being used by the federal government to assist schools, project staff used a process which enabled us to focus on a small number of approaches for indepth review.

First, staff scanned abstracts of federal assistance programs and noted any programs designed to help schools solve specific problems. For such programs, RBS staff obtained copies of both program announcements and guidelines. These documents were analyzed, and six programs administered by the U.S. Office of Education were identified for further review.** This review began with calls to federal offices to request copies of reports, evaluations, and testimony. Staff read these materials and then interviewed federal program staff. These interviews were valuable since they provided insights into the difficulties involved in following any specific funding approach and into the conflicting interests which affect any program designed to achieve specific goals.

In summary, a number of project activities were conducted to develop an information base on the nature of the problem, current activities in

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*Appendix B contains the agenda, materials used in the sessions, and the questionnaire distributed at the end of the sessions.

**Copies of U.S.O.E. program summaries for these six programs are provided in Appendix C.

schools, the kinds of assistance schools need, and the experience of federal agencies in supplying assistance to schools. The information gathered was used to design a recommended program to help schools cope with the problem of violence. This report discusses project findings and sets forth the recommended program.

CHAPTER 2

NATURE AND EXTENT OF THE PROBLEM

NATURE AND EXTENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this analysis is to provide an information base on the nature of the problem of violence in our schools. In order to achieve this purpose, data were collected by RBS from educators, students, and others involved with the problem through a telephone survey and a series of working conferences. In addition, RBS staff examined discussions of the problem found in documents in the literature, for example, in research reports, newspaper and magazine articles, position papers from educational associations, and documents related to legislative activities.

In this chapter, our findings on the problem are reported in four sections: Definition of the Problem, Extent of the Problem, Costs Associated with School Violence, and Perceived Importance of the Problem.

DEFINITION OF THE PROBLEM

An initial objective of the project was to define the dimensions of the problem of school violence. What is school violence? How do school personnel define the term? What kinds of incidents fall within its scope?

School violence is an ambiguous term which can be defined in a number of different ways. At one extreme, school violence can be defined broadly to encompass any incident that seriously disrupts the learning of students in any public or private school. At the other extreme, the term can be defined narrowly to include only crimes against persons which occur in public elementary schools. The way the term is defined obviously affects both the way people perceive the problem and the evidence they use to demonstrate the magnitude of the problem.

A preliminary definition of the term school violence was prepared at the outset of the project. School was defined as referring to any public elementary or secondary school and including the interior of the building, adjacent school grounds, school buses, and traffic corridors to and from the school. Violence was defined to include both offenses against persons (i.e., criminal homicide, forcible rape, robbery, and assault) and offenses against property (i.e., burglary, larceny, arson, and vandalism).

Later, as the literature search and the telephone survey revealed that school people were defining violence in much broader terms, the scope of our preliminary definition was expanded to include any event that significantly disrupts the education of students. This definition includes not only crimes against persons and property but also events such as rioting and fighting,

physical confrontations between students and staff, the presence of unruly and unauthorized nonschool persons on school property, and significant fear of violence within the school itself. At this point, we began to use the term school violence and disruption in recognition of the expanded definition of the problem.

The three working conferences provided an opportunity to further define the kinds of problems which might be included under the term school violence and disruption. The 102 participants at these conferences were asked to review a list of problems prepared by the RBS staff, add new problems, and/or delete or modify any of the problems listed. The following problems were presented to conference participants:

- Attacks in Schools. Assaults, rapes, and murders of students or staff on school premises are increasing.
- Weapons. More weapons (e.g., guns, knives) are being carried to school.
- Gangs. Gang violence has become well established in schools.
- Intruders. Outsiders (including dropouts, truants from other schools, and unemployed youth) terrorize students and vandalize school property.
- Intergroup Clashes. Confrontations among racial, social, and ethnic groups have disrupted the educational process.
- Vandalism. Wanton destruction of facilities, equipment, and student projects is prevalent.
- Fear of Violence. A climate of fear is pervasive in schools.

The participants generally agreed that this list incorporates the major problems of violence and disruption encountered in schools. A sizable number of the participants, however, believed that drugs should be added to the

list since a number of incidents of violence and disruption seem to stem from drug problems. A few participants also argued for the inclusion of other problems such as arson and bombing, burglary and theft, alcohol, extortion, false alarms, graffiti, insubordination and verbal abuse, and prostitution.

These comments led us to accept a broad definition of the problem of school violence. School violence and disruption was defined for the purposes of this study as including any event that significantly disrupts the education of students in public elementary and secondary schools. The major problems that fall within this definition are: vandalism, personal assault, gangs and intergroup clashes, fear of violence, intruders, and weapons.

EXTENT OF THE PROBLEM

This definition provided a structure for our attempts to collect information on the extent of the problem of violence and disruption in the public schools. Two different approaches were used to study the extent of the problem. First, efforts were made to understand the extent or magnitude of the problem as perceived by the participants in our working conferences. Second, we examined the literature to determine the extent of the problem on a national scale.

Conference Results

The 102 conference participants were asked to indicate their personal experience with the seven major problems that fall within the scope of our definition. The results are provided in Table 1.

Table 1

Experience with School Violence and Disruption
Reported by Conference Participants

Type of Violent Incident	Number of Participants Reporting Experience*
Vandalism--Wanton destruction of facilities, equipment, and student projects.	92
Weapons--Guns, knives, etc., carried in school.	83
Personal Attacks--Assaults, rapes, and murders on school premises.	83
Intruders--Outsiders terrorize students and vandalize school property.	78
Fear of Violence--A climate of fear exists in schools.	77
Group Clashes--Confrontations among racial, social, and ethnic groups.	76
Gangs--Gang violence in and around schools.	60

*n = 102

Conference participants obviously have had extensive experience with the various problems of school violence and disruption. Vandalism problems were experienced by 92 participants--roughly 92 percent of the total group of 102 participants. Weapons and personal attacks were reported by 83 percent of the total group. Intruders, fear of violence, and group clashes were mentioned by about 77 percent of the group. Gang experiences were reported by 60 percent. In short, the vast majority of the participants have had direct experience with all types of incidents of school violence and disruption.

It is important to recognize the characteristics of the members of this group in interpreting these data. Conference participants represent a group of people in the field who are deeply concerned with the problem of violence and who have had considerable experience with a wide range of problems of violence in the schools. Consequently, these data clearly indicate that serious problems of violence exist in some schools. In order to determine the extent to which these problems are experienced in schools throughout the country, RBS turned to the literature.

Results of Literature Search

Recent hearings conducted by both the Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Deliqnuency and the House Subcommittee on Elementary, Seconday, and Vocational Education have provided a great deal of evidence on the magnitude of the school violence problem. Testimony of teachers, students, administrators, and school security officials from large and small communities, from urban, suburban and rural districts, indicates that a wide

range of violent acts are taking place with increasing frequency and that the cost in educational and financial terms is exceedingly high.

General Trends

Several attempts to collect information on the extent of violence and disruption in public schools have been stimulated by these hearings and other expressions of national interest in the problem. In 1970, the Senate Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency surveyed 110 urban school districts to gather information on a number of crimes against persons and property. The results showed sharp increases in most categories. Table 2 shows these increases in percentage figures for the period 1964-1968.

Table 2

Increase in Crime in 110 Urban School Districts, 1964-1968

Category	1964	1968	Percentage Increase
Homicide	15	26	73
Forcible Rape	51	81	61
Robbery	396	1,508	376
Aggravated Assault	475	680	43
Burglary, Larceny	7,604	14,102	85
Weapons Offenses	419	1,089	136
Narcotics	73	854	1,069
Drunkenness	370	1,035	179
Crimes by Nonstudents	142	3,894	2,600
Vandalism Incidents	186,184	250,549	35
Assault on Teachers	25	1,081	7,100
Assault on Students	1,601	4,267	167
Other	4,796	8,824	84

Source: Senate Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency Survey, 1970, reported in J. M. Tien, Crime/Environment Targets.

The Senate Subcommittee also sent out questionnaires in 1973 to the superintendents of 757 public school districts with enrollments greater than 10,000 pupils. Responses from 516 districts provided some data on trends in the school incidence of homicide, rape, robbery, assault on students, assault on teachers, burglary, drug and alcohol offenses, and weapons possession from 1970 to 1973 (see Table 3). These data corroborate other evidence that school violence is increasing.

Table 3

Percentage Increase in Crime in
516 School Districts, 1970-1973

Category	Percentage Increase
Homicide	18.5
Rape and Attempted Rape	40.1
Robbery	36.7
Assault on Students	85.3
Assault on Teachers	77.4
Burglary of School Buildings	11.8
Drug and Alcohol Offenses on School Property	37.5
Weapons Confiscated	54.4

Source: Our Nation's Schools..., Preliminary Report of the Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, 1975.

Specific Problems

In the literature search, our emphasis was on an analysis of each of the specific problems that fall within the scope of our definition of school violence and disruption.

Assault, defined as the inflicting of bodily injury by one person on another person, constitutes one of the most serious forms of violence in schools. Assault is also one of the most difficult problems to document.

Serious deficiencies in school reporting practices and the reluctance of victims to report assaults are two explanations for the lack of accurate records on assaults. Student victims may fear retaliation if they report a fellow student. Teachers often fail to report assaults because they might be blamed by parents or school administrators for failing to maintain discipline or for somehow provoking the attack. Principals also have reasons for not reporting such incidents since they do not wish to alarm parents and other citizens or to jeopardize the reputation of the school. While exact figures are not available, some trends can be estimated from existing data and from interviews at the working conferences with students, teachers, administrators, and security directors.

In a 1964 survey by the National Education Association (NEA), 14.7 percent of the teachers surveyed reported that a teacher had been physically assaulted in their schools. A similar survey in 1973 showed that this figure had increased to 37 percent. In school districts with enrollments over 25,000, almost 50 percent of the teachers responding were aware of specific

assaults on teachers in their schools. The current NEA estimate of the number of assaults on teachers is approximately 70,000 per year.[1]

Teachers claim that school administrators are not facing up to the problem, and school security is becoming an issue in contract negotiations between teachers' organizations and school boards. According to Albert Shanker, President of the United Federation of Teachers, there were 474 assaults on teachers and other professional staff members in New York City schools during the first five months of the 1974-1975 school year.[2] Frank Sullivan, President of the Philadelphia Federation of Teachers, maintains that at least three of the city's 13,000 teachers are assaulted each school day. He also contends, however, that few of these assaults are reported.[3] The attackers include parents and intruders as well as students.

The problem of assault is not confined to large cities. Peter Blauvelt, Chief of School Security in suburban Prince George's County, Maryland, estimates that 100 teachers in that district are assaulted each year. He reported a 62 percent increase over the previous year in the number of assaults on teachers in the period July 1974 to March 1975. In the same period, there was a 34 percent increase in the number of assaults on students.[4]

Students are often considered the principal victims of school violence. The data relating to physical assaults on students, however, are even less reliable than other assault data. This lack of data is not only due to the problem of unreported incidents but also to the problem of determining which specific incidents can be correctly classified as assault and which would be more accurately termed harassment, disorderly conduct, or reckless endangerment. In effect, no standard measure is available to determine

what constitutes an assault as the term is used in the literature on school violence.

Nonetheless, some national data indicate a sharp upward trend in student assaults. A survey of school personnel conducted by the Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency requested comparative data for the school years 1970-1971, 1971-1972, and 1972-1973. The information supplied by the 516 school districts that responded to the questionnaire showed an 85.3 percent increase in assaults on students and a 77.4 percent increase in assaults on teachers between 1970 and 1973.[5]

Fear of violence appears to have two detrimental effects on schools: (1) it impedes the educational process, and (2) it may initiate a vicious cycle which leads to more violence. For example, students, teachers, and administrators often fail to report incidents of violence because they fear retaliation. As a result, the violence goes unchecked and continues to grow. To cite another example, fear often causes students and teachers to arm themselves against perceived danger with the result that more and more people are carrying guns, knives, and other weapons into school buildings. In this way, fear of violence itself may become a major cause of violence.

Very little statistical evidence related to the fear of violence in schools is available, however, the results of a research project sponsored by LEAA provide some insight into the problem. Temple University is currently studying fear of crime as part of a longitudinal investigation into delinquency and city life. The findings show that about one-quarter of the

595 black male students who were interviewed felt that the halls and rooms of the local public school building were dangerous. Approximately half of the students questioned were fearful of streets leading to and from school as well as the school yard. The mothers of these students were also questioned about their fear for their children. The findings indicate that 55 percent of the mothers experience a high degree of fear of their child being assaulted at school.[6]

The degree of fear reported in this study does not in any way represent the national situation; it does, however, illustrate the extent of the problem in some large urban areas.

Gang violence has both an indirect and a direct effect on schools, although traditionally schools have been viewed as neutral territory or places where gang activity would not take place. Some school officials claim that this tradition is still honored. Nonetheless, they point out that gang activity in the area of the school has the indirect effect of intimidating staff and students. Thus, when gangs are fighting one another, school attendance drops and those students who do attend school are more concerned about personal safety than about education.

Other school officials contend that more direct gang activity is taking place in schools than is generally acknowledged. Los Angeles Associate Superintendent Jerry Halverson, in his testimony before a Senate Subcommittee, expressed it this way:

> The school site provides a natural base for operations including recruitment, meetings for planning and information sharing, and criminal acts upon peers. The effects of gangs on the educational process at the secondary school level are not quantitatively

measurable, but it is safe to conclude that staff and students are intimidated to an alarming degree by the presence and actions of gang members on and around campuses in some parts of the District.[7]

The public perception of gang violence seems to be similar to that of Superintendent Halverson. In a nationwide Gallup Poll on public attitudes toward education conducted in 1974, 60 percent of the respondents answering a question on gang problems in schools felt "student gangs that disrupt the school and other students" constituted either a very serious or a moderately serious problem in their local public schools. Among high school juniors and seniors questioned in the same survey, 54 percent ranked gangs as either a very serious or a moderately serious problem in their schools.[8]

LEAA recently funded a study for the purpose of collecting current information about gangs through interviews with numerous people who are directly involved with gang activities. The preliminary findings of this study indicate that the nature of gang activity has changed considerably since the 1960's. The motives of "gain and control" now seem to be playing a larger role in gang activity. Thus, more gang activity is directed toward intimidating witnesses, undermining school policies, and dominating public facilities. This trend is evident in the kinds of activities purportedly occurring in and around schools in major gang-affected cities across the nation. For example:

- Gang members have transferred some activities which had previously been conducted in the community to the formerly neutral territory of the school (e.g., gang fights and extortion).
- Gang members use violence and threats of violence to discourage teachers from reporting their illegal activities to school authorities.

- Gang members collect protection money from students for the privilege of not being assaulted by gang members while in school.
- Gang members are reported to be using schools to recruit members with--in some instances--the complicity of school authorities.
- Gangs are responsible for extensive vandalism of school facilities and destruction of buildings through arson.[9]

Weapons are widespread in our society and in our schools. The statistics on weapons offenses involving juveniles as reported in the Uniform Crime Reports provide evidence that a considerable number of school age children have access to deadly weapons.[10]

Firearms and other weapons are present in schools in far greater numbers than in years past. The Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency reports a 54 percent increase between 1970 and 1973 in the number of weapons confiscated in schools.[11] This national average does not highlight the situation in large urban schools which is even more alarming. Los Angeles, for example, reports a total of 220 firearms incidents in 1973-1974--compared to 94 the previous year. Incidents involving knives and other weapons increased from 73 to 187.[12]

Intruders are defined as persons who are not authorized to be on school property. Very often they are school dropouts, truants from other schools, or pupils who have been suspended or expelled. They may also be unemployed youth, former students, or gang members. Schools that are located in areas where there is a high incidence of street crime are especially vulnerable to intrusion by adult criminals.

Intruders account for a large proportion of school crime according to some school officials. During 1973-1974, the Office of School Security in New York City reported that intruders were responsible for 1,020 incidents or 23.2 percent of all incidents in the schools. Although trespassing accounted for half of the 1,020 incidents, the remaining 509 intruder incidents included 267 assaults--16 percent of all reported assaults; 115 robberies--60.5 percent of all reported robberies; and 26 sex offenses--50.2 percent of all reported sex offenses.[13]

At present there is no way to determine the extent of intruder involvement in school crime throughout the country. If the New York City data on intruders are representative, however, the effective exclusion of unauthorized persons from school property would greatly reduce the incidence of violence in schools.

Vandalism is defined in the literature as the willful or malicious destruction, injury, disfigurement, or defacement of property. This definition encompasses everything from arson to window-breaking, including graffiti. The importance of school vandalism lies in the fact that it is the most common form of disruption; it is costly, thus placing additional strains on already tight school budgets; it often disrupts the instructional program; and--if the problem persists--it tends to demoralize everyone connected with the school. Just how widespread the vandalism problem is can be determined from the results of the following national surveys.

In 1970, Education U.S.A. surveyed 44 school districts in 24 states and the District of Columbia. School personnel from urban, rural, and suburban

districts reported that they were stepping up programs to improve school security. About 60 percent of the school officials responding to the survey reported that vandalism had increased in their schools.[14]

The latest annual School Security Survey conducted by School Product News offers additional evidence of the scope of the problem. Survey findings (Table 4) show that the proportion of small districts experiencing damage due to vandalism is almost as great as the proportion of large districts experiencing such damage.

Table 4

Percentage of Districts Reporting Damage by Type of Damage and Size of District

District Enrollment	Fire Damage	Property Destruction	Glass Breakage	Equipment Theft
25,000 +	64.4%	82.2%	95.6%	95.6%
10,000 - 24,999	42.2	80.0	98.9	88.9
5,000 - 9,999	19.2	79.2	94.6	76.9
2,500 - 4,999	12.9	75.5	92.9	73.7
All Districts	24.7%	77.9%	94.7%	79.4%

Source: School Security Survey. School Product News, June 1975.

School Security Survey findings also show that the proportion of rural districts experiencing vandalism is almost as great as the proportion of urban districts experiencing such damage (Table 5).

Table 5

Percentage of Districts Reporting Damage by Type of Damage and Type of District

Type of District	Fire Damage	Property Destruction	Glass Breakage	Equipment Theft
Urban	33.3%	81.3%	96.9%	86.5%
Suburban	25.2	77.7	96.2	81.5
Rural	12.0	72.8	92.4	71.7
Combination*	28.6	81.0	88.9	71.4
All Districts	24.7%	77.9%	94.7%	79.4%

Source: School Security Survey. School Product News, June 1975.

*Urban/suburban, suburban/rural.

Arson is the least common form of vandalism, but it is a serious problem. A report from the National Fire Protection Association (NFPA) indicates that there is a continual upward trend in the percentage of school fires started by incendiarism. In 1971, the NFPA estimated that incendiarism was a factor in 76.1 percent of the 20,500 school fires reported.[15]

Fortunately, most schools do not have to cope with the severe losses caused by fire--only a fourth of the districts surveyed by School Product News reported fire damage. Some districts, however, experience numerous fires during a single school year. For example, between July 1, 1974 and October 31, 1974, seven major fires were deliberately set in the schools of Prince George's County, Maryland.[16]

In the opinion of many educators, all of these problems are present to some degree in many schools throughout the nation, although large urban

schools are those most seriously affected. Dr. Paul B. Salmon, Executive Director of the American Association of School Administrators, commented on the problem with these words: "The difference between inner city and suburban schools is merely of degree, not of kind."[17] The American School Board Journal noted in a special issue on school violence that "few school officials feel either safe or smug about school violence, even if they are located in high class suburbs...or in isolated rural areas."[18] The Executive Secretary of the National Association of Secondary School Principals described the "frightening growth of the problem in a large suburban high school located in the State of Illinois." This institution, which he claimed would be on anyone's list of best 100 high schools in the nation, had experienced sharp increases in larceny, vandalism, fighting, and locker break-ins during the last few years.[19]

The following account from a national news magazine illustrates the problem in a small rural community:

> Stereos, tools and athletic equipment disappeared from the premises in wholesale lots until school officials finally discovered that the thieves were six of their own star athletes. Next, a car belonging to the track coach was stolen, flipped over, and set afire by students still unknown. Then, a social-science teacher was shot at twice in as many weeks. A chemistry teacher was assaulted in a school hallway by a student he had never taught. A 15-year-old girl attacked the basketball coach with a butcher knife, wounding him severely on his hands. Current school statistics indicate that one girl a week turns out to be pregnant. And drug abuse has reached epidemic proportions.
>
> The scene of all these incidents is Northwest Community High School in House Springs, a placid hamlet (population: 400) in the hills of southern Missouri.[20]

In summary, the purpose of this analysis was to determine the extent or magnitude of the problem of violence and disruption in schools. In a

series of conferences, a group of 102 educators reported that the problem of violence in some schools was seriously affecting their ability to function as educational institutions. A review of the literature suggests that many schools in the country are experiencing some forms of violence and disruption and the problem seems to be increasing at an alarming rate.

COSTS ASSOCIATED WITH SCHOOL VIOLENCE

Two kinds of expenses are generally associated with the problem of school violence and disruption: (1) costs incurred by schools for repair and replacement of property and (2) the monies expended for security personnel and equipment. Unfortunately, there is no accurate account of such costs on a national level. Judgments about the magnitude of costs resulting from vandalism and violence must be based on a few surveys and on the records of individual school districts where they are available. Even this information does not lend itself to comparison since schools change their accounting procedures and organizations that conduct studies do not collect comparable data.

An overall estimate of the cost of the problem is provided in a study by Market Data Retrieval, Inc., which estimated that the total cost to schools across the country in 1972-1973 amounted to $500 million or $10.87 per student. Two hundred and sixty million dollars or $5.65 per pupil was attributed to vandalism losses, and $240 million or $5.22 per pupil was for security support services. It might be noted that schools spent approximately the same amount of money on textbooks that year.[21]

Property Loss

A School Security Survey was initiated by School Product News in 1970 to determine the cost of vandalism in school districts with enrollments of 5,000 or more students. The first survey revealed that damages from vandalism cost an average of $55,000 for each school district participating in the study. By the end of the 1973 school year, the average cost per district had risen to $63,031.[22]

In order to make the results more representative of the nation's schools, the survey was later expanded to include districts with enrollments from 2,500 to 4,999. Forty-four percent of the 561 districts responding had enrollments within that range. With those districts included, the average cost of vandalism per district is $38,226; the cost per pupil is $3.48. When this enrollment group is excluded from the tally, as it was in previous years, the 1974 per district cost is $62,991.[23]

The results of these surveys show a direct correlation between the size of the school district and the per pupil cost of losses due to fire damage, property destruction, glass breakage, and equipment theft. Districts with an enrollment of 2,500 to 4,999 averaged $1.45 per pupil. The cost increased with size of district to $5.22 for districts with enrollments greater than 25,000 students (see Table 6).

Table 6

Per Pupil Costs of Vandalism by Size of District

District Enrollment	Average Per Pupil Costs
25,000 +	$5.22
10,000 - 24,999	3.18
5,000 - 9,999	1.69
2,500 - 4,999	1.47
All districts	$3.48

Source: School Security Survey. School Product News, June 1975.

In these surveys, a correlation was also found between type of community and per pupil costs (see Table 7).

Table 7

Per Pupil Costs of Vandalism by Type of District

Type of District	Average Per Pupil Costs
Urban	$3.55
Suburban	2.77
Rural	.76
Combination*	6.55
All Districts	$3.48

Source: School Security Survey. School Product News, June 1975.

*Urban/suburban, suburban/rural

Further evidence of the cost of the problem in large urban school districts can be found in the testimony of a representative of the Los Angeles schools that total losses for the 1973-1974 school year exceeded $3,000,000 and that total losses for 1974-1975 were expected to be even higher.[24]

Security Measures

One measure of the increasing need for security can be found in the growing number of school security personnel. One witness recently told a House Subcommittee that the number of nonuniformed, school-employed security personnel grew from approximately 25 in 1965 to more than 15,000 in 1975.[25] In 1970, New York City had a 170 member school security force at a cost of

$500,000. One million dollars was set aside in 1970 to increase the force to 382.[26] By the spring of 1975, there were approximately 2,400 guards and security aides assigned to New York City schools. Similarly, the Prince George's County school system has increased its force of investigators from 7 in 1972 to 42 in 1975 and the Chief of Security would like to add another 15 people to the force.[27]

The results of the 1975 School Security Survey indicate that a majority of districts with an enrollment of more than 5,000 students employ security guards. Moreover, almost 45 percent of all school districts responding used security guards at an average cost of $37,581 per district.[28]

In the large urban and suburban districts, security costs have reached incredible levels. In 1974-1975, New York City spent $8 million of school district funds and $7 million of federal CETA* funds on security.[29] Los Angeles in the same year budgeted $3.5 million of school district funds for its security section. In addition, Los Angeles received $1.5 million in federal CETA funds and spent an additional $2 million on the installation of intrusion alarms.[30]

These few examples of the cost of school violence and disruption in large urban areas represent the upper limits of expenditures for security purposes. These figures also call attention, however, to the magnitude of the problem in some situations and show what large sums of money are being diverted from educational programs.

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*Comprehensive Employment Training Act.

The cost of school violence and disruption in educational terms may be higher in the long run than the financial costs--and more important--yet these costs are impossible to estimate. How does one calculate the cost of education lost by children due to violence or the cost to society when the educational process is severely disrupted? These factors are critical considerations in tallying up the ultimate cost of school violence and disruption.

PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF THE PROBLEM

Schools are currently faced by a number of serious problems including, for example, integration problems, lack of financial support, failure to teach basic skills, and declining respect for education. The foregoing discussion suggests that school violence and disruption is also considered a serious problem in some quarters. The purpose of this analysis is to examine the importance of the problem as perceived by school personnel and the public at large.

Data on this issue were collected by RBS in the telephone survey and the working conferences. These data were supplemented by information collected in other studies and reported in the literature.

RBS Findings

Participants in the three regional working conferences and school personnel interviewed in the telephone survey were asked to rate the importance of school violence and disruption in relation to all other problems facing schools today. The results are summarized in Table 8.

Table 8

Ranking of the Importance of School Violence Problems
By Participants in Telephone Survey and Working Conferences

Ranking	Telephone Survey	Working Conference[a]
1st	6	13
Top 3	43	28
Top 5	24	7
Top 10	13	3
Not a Concern	7	0
Total Number of Respondents	93	51

[a]post-conference questionnaire

These results indicate that these respondents view school violence and disruption as a very important problem. In the telephone survey, about 79 percent of the respondents ranked violence among the top five problems faced by schools. In the working conferences, about 80 percent of the participants responding to a post-conference questionnaire ranked violence as one of the top three problems currently faced by schools. Again, it is important to recall that this sample represents the views of a group of people who are deeply involved in problems of school violence.

Results of Literature Search

A major survey of public attitudes toward education has been conducted by the Gallup organization annually since 1969. Each year respondents were asked to rank the major problems confronting the public schools. In six of the last seven years, "lack of discipline" (which is frequently mentioned as a factor which contributes to school violence) headed the list. Also, in the 1975 Gallup poll, the number of people mentioning the related problems of crime, vandalism, and stealing was so large that for the first time that problem area was reported as one of the top ten problems facing schools.[31]

In the 1974 Gallup poll, some special questions were included on the problem of stealing as one reflection of the impressions of the public on the matter of crime within schools. Forty percent of the respondents who answered the question on stealing reported that the problem occurs a great deal in their local public schools; forty-one percent said that some stealing occurred, while only 18 percent estimated that very little stealing goes on in their schools.[32]

Another indication that the general public perceives school violence as an important problem is the priority given to the topic by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers (PTA). The President of that organization told a Senate subcommittee that school violence and vandalism has been selected as a priority concern by the governing board of the seven million member National PTA.[33] A representative of the National Committee for Citizens in Education also testified on the importance of the problem.[34]

School personnel also assign a high priority to the problem. Each year the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) polls its 35,000 members on a number of issues in school administration and curriculum. In the 1974 poll, secondary school principals throughout the nation reported that student vandalism, violence, and defiance were among five problems which are of rising frequency and concern to them. Owen Kiernan, the Executive Secretary of the NASSP, told a Congressional subcommittee:

> Violence and vandalism have moved, just in one decade, from being an ancillary and occasional problem in the life of the secondary school principal to a position of oppressive and everpresent dominance.[35]

Members of the largest teachers' organization in the U.S., the National Education Association (NEA), echo the feelings of NASSP members. In June of 1975, the President of NEA testified:

> Information available to the National Education Association indicates a greater public awareness and concern about school violence and disruption than at any time during the past several years.[36]

The Vice President of the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), which represents teachers in many of the nation's largest cities, told a House

education subcommittee that "the classroom is no longer a safe refuge for youth from the violent crime that permeates adult society."[37] One AFT affiliate, New York's United Federation of Teachers, considered the situation serious enough to warrant publication of a brochure for its members, "Security in the Schools: Tips for Guarding the Safety of Teachers and Students," which can be viewed as a basic survival manual for urban teachers.[38]

Further evidence of the importance attached to the problem by educators and the general public is found in the amount of attention that has been given to the issue by state and federal legislative bodies over the past five or six years. The Education Commission of the States reports that about 100 proposals related to student control as well as school safety and security were considered by legislative bodies in 1973 and 1974. Numerous legislative hearings have been held, studies have been conducted, and reports have been issued.[39]

Two Congressional committees have considered bills related to safe schools, crime, and violence. The House General Subcommittee on Education first held hearings on the Safe Schools Act in the fall of 1971, but no further action was taken during the 92nd Congress. The bill was reintroduced in the 93rd Congress with over 20 co-sponsors. Hearings were again held, but no report was issued on the legislation. In the 94th Congress the Subcommittee is again conducting hearings on the problem.

In the meantime, the Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency has been conducting hearings on the proposed Juvenile Delinquency in the Schools Act of 1975, which was introduced as an amendment to the Juvenile

Justice Act. To date, the only legislation that has been enacted as a result of House and Senate actions is the Safe Schools Study Act calling for a full and complete investigation of crime in the schools.[40]

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

In this chapter, we have tried to define the problem of school violence and disruption and indicate the extent of this problem in the nation's schools. We have also examined the cost of the problem--in both financial and educational terms--as well as the perceptions of the problem of both educators and members of the general public.

Information on the problem of violence in our schools was gathered in an analysis of the literature supplemented by data collected in a series of working conferences and a telephone survey. We found that:

- A serious problem of violence and disruption was found in many schools throughout the country.
- The cost of the problem appears to be quite high in both financial and educational terms.
- Educators and members of the public at large generally rank violence and disruption among the top problems in education today.
- Educators prefer a broad definition of the problem to include not only incidents of violence but also cases of major disruption in schools.

In view of the findings detailed above, it is fair to conclude that school violence and disruption is a serious and costly national problem. A problem of this magnitude warrants a national effort.

CHAPTER 3

CURRENT ACTIVITIES IN SCHOOLS

CURRENT ACTIVITIES IN SCHOOLS

The purpose of this part of the study was to provide a base of information about the range of current activities designed to reduce violence and disruption in schools. Our search for information on program activities focused on three questions:

- What is the scope of existing programs?
- How effective are these programs?
- What are their funding sources?

The telephone survey was used to collect data on each of these questions; in turn, these data were supplemented by personal interviews, literature reviews, and small group discussions in the working conferences. This chapter presents our findings with reference to each question and an analysis of the nature of these program activities.

SCOPE OF EXISTING PROGRAMS

The principal objectives of the telephone survey of educators (described in Chapter 1) were to determine: (1) the extent to which schools are taking steps to address the problem of violence and disruption and (2) the nature of these activities.

In conducting this telephone survey, we deliberately searched for programs in all geographical areas of the country and in all kinds of communities. No effort was made, however, to insure representative sampling of different areas and different kinds of communities. Since these data are not based on representative sampling, it is inappropriate to draw conclusions about the actual number of programs in any particular area or in different types of communities.

Our findings clearly indicate that educators in all sections of the country and in all kinds of communities are taking steps to address the problem of violence. To be more specific, as a result of telephone interviews with more than 300 educators, we were able to identify and describe 137 programs.

We have reason to believe that these programs represent only a small sample of a much larger population of school violence programs. Well over 137 programs were identified in our survey, but many were not cataloged and described due to time and resource limitations. Los Angeles, for example, has more than 40 programs to combat school violence but descriptions were prepared for only two of those programs.

Table 1 indicates the distribution of programs by region of the country. A number of programs were found in every region of the country and at least

one program was located in every state in the nation, including the District of Columbia.

Table 1

Distribution of 137 Programs by Region of the Nation

Breakdown by Region*	Northeast	Northcentral	South	West	Total Number of Programs
	Connecticut Maine Massachusetts New Hampshire New Jersey New York Pennsylvania Rhode Island Vermont	Illinois Indiana Iowa Kansas Michigan Minnesota Missouri Nebraska North Dakota Ohio South Dakota Wisconsin	Alabama Arkansas Delaware District of Columbia Florida Georgia Kentucky Louisiana Maryland Mississippi North Carolina Oklahoma South Carolina Tennessee Texas Virginia West Virginia	Alaska Arizona California Colorado Hawaii Idaho Montana Nevada New Mexico Oregon Utah Washington Wyoming	
	39	28	37	33	137

*LEAA Regional Classification

Table 2 shows the distribution of these programs by type of community, socio-economic status of the community, and level of implementation of the program. Most of the programs described were found in urban areas (80). A significant number of the programs described were located in suburban communities (42). Relatively few of the programs identified were located in rural communities (15). These data indicate that programs exist in all types of communities.

Table 2

Distribution of 137 Programs by Urban, Suburban and Rural Community; Socio-Economic Status; and Level of Implementation

Type of Community	Urban	Suburban	Rural
	80	42	15
Socio-Economic Status of Community*	High	Middle	Low
	5	84	48
Level of Implementation	District	Building	Classroom
	86	51	0

*Community in this instance is the community served by the program. If a program serves an entire school district, the socio-economic status reflects that entire district community. Socio-economic statistics are assessments provided by the telephone survey respondents.

With reference to socio-economic status (SES), a few programs were located in high SES areas (5), the majority in middle SES communities (84), and a sizable number in low SES areas (48). Programs to reduce violence exist in communities at all socio-economic levels.

With reference to level of implementation, most of the programs (86) are district-wide which is defined as encompassing two or more of the school buildings in the district. A number of programs (51) are limited to a single building in the district. We were unable to identify any programs which are confined to a single classroom.

The distribution of programs by size of school district is provided in the upper half of Table 3 which shows the number and percentage of programs

located in districts of varying sizes. Although we did not locate any programs in school districts with enrollments of fewer than 1,000 students, this fact should not be interpreted to mean that programs to reduce school violence do not exist in small districts. Instead, it reflects the fact that our survey strategy did not reach districts of that size. A significant number of programs was found in districts with enrollments of all other sizes.

Table 3

Distribution of Programs by School District Size

	District Size (Number of Students)				
	Up to 1,000	1,001 to 10,000	10,001 to 25,000	25,001 or more	Base
Number of Programs	0	26	32	79	137 Programs
Percentage of Programs	0	18.9	23.4	57.7	137 Programs
Percentage of All Public School Districts*	56.0	39.6	3.3	1.1	16,338 Public School Districts
Percentage of All Public School Students*	6.8	45.5	18.2	29.4	44,984,957 Public School Students

*Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics, Education Directory 1973-1974.

The lower half of Table 3 includes information on the percentages of the national population of school districts represented by districts of varying sizes and the percentages of the total population of students enrolled in those districts. About 56 percent of all public school districts in the country have fewer than 1,000 students enrolled, but these districts account for only about 7 percent of the total number of public school students in the country. These data reinforce the point that our survey strategy does not reflect the national distribution of school districts or students in those districts.

After locating programs in all kinds of communities in all sections of the country, we sought to classify the programs by type. Working inductively from the descriptions which we prepared for 137 programs, we found that most of the programs would fall into one of four major categories: security systems, counseling services, curricular/instructional programs, or organizational modifications. Examples of programs in each of these four major categories are provided below:

- Security Systems. One group of programs was focused on the development of security systems to protect staff and students from outsiders, to protect staff and students from violence within the school, and to protect the physical facilities from vandalism, burglary, and arson. These systems tend to encompass a broad range of approaches, as illustrated by the following examples:

  1. A safety corridor provides access to school on one protected street for all students.

  2. Teams of students (one black and one white) with leadership qualities patrol the halls during their free time.

  3. After school hours, trained college students in a security center monitor signals from various crime-detection devices located in 25 schools.

4. Police assigned to patrol schools are given office space where they can counsel students referred to them.

5. At night, a K-9 unit is used to reduce burglaries and vandalism.

6. After a murder, a security plan was implemented featuring I.D. cards, teachers on hall duty, bright lighting, a fence, police, and an electronic monitoring system for weapons search. Free periods and smoking areas were eliminated.

7. An intrusion alarm system was installed to reduce vandalism and burglary after school hours.

8. A personal alarm system is used to protect school staff and students.

- Counseling Services. Another group of programs were used to intensify services to students in trouble. These programs frequently coordinate school counseling services with those provided by other community agencies to youths and their families, as illustrated by the following examples:

  1. Weekly group counseling with gang members is followed up by individual counseling.

  2. A counseling center tries to return children to school instead of having them stand trial for minor offenses by coordinating help from various agencies for students.

  3. Disruptive students are sent from class to a trained counselor for a cooling-off period and to clarify their problems.

  4. Street workers seek out students with problems and counsel them wherever they are found.

  5. For a ten-week period, fifteen children discuss their lives, drugs, parents, and peers with a trained counselor.

- Curricular/Instructional Programs. Another group of programs were used to help students in trouble acquire critical skills in specialized curricular or instructional programs (e.g., basic reading and mathematics skills, personal management skills, conflict resolution skills). Some schools also developed general courses on law and law enforcement to make sure that students understand the potential consequences of violent or disruptive behavior. Here are five examples:

1. A training program helps teachers encourage students to accept responsibility for their personal actions.

2. Students are trained in security careers and given on-the-job experience within the school district.

3. Mini-courses, featuring a wide variety of topics selected by students are used instead of study halls in order to increase student interest and reduce disruption.

4. High school students are taught topics in criminal law and take field trips to meet people working in the criminal justice system.

5. An internship program at a university trains teachers who specialize in teaching basic skills while using crisis intervention techniques to help students keep out of trouble.

- Organizational Modifications. Finally, another group of programs are designed to modify the structure of education in a classroom or school to make it more responsive, or at minimum to provide special educational programs for disruptive students. Examples of this type of program are illustrated below.

1. To reduce racial tension, a school was divided into five independent communities.

2. A non-graded alternative school was developed which stressed basic skills, career education, and parental involvement.

3. Students in trouble may sign contracts to have their privileges returned if they fulfill the terms of the contract over a period of time.

4. After three years of disturbances, a school instituted a review board to give students an opportunity to appeal disciplinary actions.

Table 4 shows the distribution by program focus of the 137 programs described. Examples of all four types of programs are provided in Appendix B.

Table 4

Distribution of 137 Programs by Program Focus

Type of Program	Number of Programs
Security Systems	23
Counseling Services	30
Curricular/Instructional Programs	36
Organizational Modifications	39
Other	9
Total Programs	137

PROGRAM EFFECTIVENESS

In addition to identifying and describing programs designed to reduce school violence, this study also undertook to gather information on the effectiveness of those programs. This was done by means of the telephone survey. As part of the interview, we asked three questions:

- Did the respondent perceive the program as effective?
- What evidence was this perception based upon?
- What factors contributed most to program success or failure?

Table 5 shows the opinions of respondents about the results of their programs. In response to the first question, 129 of the 137 respondents stated that their programs are having an impact. Only two programs were considered not helpful. One of these programs provided drug information to students, yet drug usage rose. The other program educated parents in sociological concepts, but little evidence of success was observed.

Table 5

Opinions of Respondents on Program Effectiveness

Opinion	Number
Helpful	129
Not Helpful	2
Results Mixed	1
Irregular Implementation	1
Proposed Activities (No Results)	4
Total	137

The respondents offered various types of evidence to support their optimistic assessments of program results. Planned evaluation studies were actually conducted for only 40 of the 137 programs. The evidence provided on the effectiveness of the other 97 programs can be grouped into three main categories--attitudinal change, reduction of criminal acts, and reduction of educational disruption. Some examples of the types of evidence supplied are:

- Attitudinal Change

  Student attitude toward self
  Student attitude toward school
  Student attitude toward police
  General fear and tension reduced

- Reduction of Criminal Acts

  Number of arrests
  Number of rearrests
  Number of personal assaults
  Number of mass disturbances
  Drug usage rate
  Neighborhood crime rate

- Reduction of Educational Disruption

  Number of suspensions
  Attendance
  Recidivism rates
  Cost of vandalism
  Number of discipline referrals
  Achievement test scores
  Graduation rate

Table 6 lists the factors identified by respondents as having contributed to program success. While these success factors relate to different

kinds of programs, it is clear that the cooperative efforts of the people involved were identified as critical in nearly every instance.

Table 6

Important Factors Affecting Success

Factor	Number
Relationship between Student and Counselor	11
Cooperation of Students	13
Cooperation of Counselors	21
Cooperation of Outside Agencies	17
Cooperation of Other School Staff	11
Pre-Service Training of Counselors	8
Public Relations with Community	6
Parent Support/Involvement	6
"Quality" of Counselors	5
Proper Selection of Clients	2
Effective Leadership	2
Program-Specific Component (e.g., turn on alarm system before going home)	21
Other	4
Undetermined	10
Total	137*

*The 137 factors identified above relate to 122 programs. Some respondents mentioned more than one success factor, while others were unable to identify specific factors in the success of their programs.

FUNDING SOURCES

In order to ascertain how program activities are being funded, we asked respondents to identify past and present funding sources for their programs. Table 7 shows the distribution of funding sources for the 137 programs.

Table 7

Funding Sources for 137 Programs

Source	Number
Local Sources	79
Federal Sources	20
State Sources	13
County Sources	1
Mixed Governmental Levels	20
Sub-total	133
Proposed Activities (Not Yet Funded)	4
Total Programs	137

Our findings show that local sources are the dominant funders of activities identified in the survey; however, we found local funding quite complex. Funds often flow from various local sources to the schools through the school district's central office. Moreover, some programs operate without the infusion of additional funds but with the services of community agencies, private agencies, city governments, and additional support from the school district. For example, a police department may supply officers to speak to students in schools or provide additional police cars during

school opening and closing hours. Salaries for people working on school programs may be paid by other local governmental agencies, while office space, materials, and equipment may be supplied by the school district.

Federal agencies were the second largest source of funds. The most frequently cited federal source of funding for activities designed to reduce school violence and disruption was HEW (10). The Department of Justice (represented by LEAA) was next (6), and the Department of Labor was cited as funding some programs (4).

State funds ranked third and generally were supplied by state departments of education. State departments of justice were mentioned a few times, and two respondents indicated that the state legislature provided funds. The one county source of program funding was located in the State of Washington.

Twenty activities were funded by more than one level of government. The pattern most frequently mentioned involved a combination of federal and local funds (10). A federal, state, and local pattern (7) or a state and local pattern (3) accounted for the other programs receiving funds from multiple sources.

We also found 15 instances where funding responsibility had shifted from one governmental level to another. Twelve of these shifts were from federal funding to school district funding. Though the RRS study did not attempt to determine the effects on programs of changes in the funding source or discover how many programs were discontinued when funding was withdrawn, these factors are important to consider in the formulation of LEAA policy.

PROGRAM ANALYSIS

All of these programs represent efforts to solve problems of violence and disruption in operational school situations. These programs have different objectives and different strategies are used to meet those objectives. In addition, the activities in each program seem to be tailored to the unique needs and conditions of a particular school situation.

The literature contains some insights into the nature and meaning of these programs. Bailey's study of urban public secondary schools, for example, was designed to investigate the causes of school disruption and to identify strategies that appear to be successful in mitigating the worst of such problems.[1] He argues that the causes of disruption are found not only in schools but also in the wider pattern of social conflict in our society. Thus, violence in society contributes to the problem in schools and vice versa. The result is a circular continuum of causes which are so much a part of the fabric of American life that there is little hope for a simple solution. Concluding that school disruption will continue for some time to come (at least in urban high schools), he proposes strategies which respond to the problem on three different levels:

1. Changing and modifying school practices which tend to contribute to the problem;
2. Implementing tactical expedients that seem to soften the most disruptive manifestations of unrest; and
3. Developing longer-range cooling stategies that give promise of getting at some of the basic causes of current problems.

Although our categories are not organized along these dimensions, strategies related to each of Bailey's levels have been identified. The programs

we have described tend to employ the first two strategies although some of the instructional programs and counseling service programs involve long-range strategies.

Wenk's concept of the problem calls for the basic reform or redesign of the public school system.[2] He believes that schools are contributing to social decay by failing to assure that all students have an opportunity to develop into responsible citizens. To achieve the goal of responsible citizenship for all, he sets forth a continuum of five distinct strategies for school programs:

- Primary Action. Primary action provides an a priori quality model for education and human services designed to enhance the lives of students.
- Primary Prevention. This strategy focuses early on children in need without identifying individuals as "delinquency-prone." Help is provided in response to needs without specific reference to delinquency prevention even though program priorities may be based on knowledge of the relationship between needs and various social consequences.
- Prevention. This level of intervention directly addresses individual children who are identified as in danger of becoming members of a deviant group. At this stage, individuals or groups are identified and "targeted" as they are diagnostically declared delinquency-prone.
- Treatment or Sanctions. Efforts at this level are directed toward the overt manifestations of a degree of maladjustment that has become sufficiently intolerable to invoke a response from official school or community authorities and that may lead to involvement in the criminal justice system.
- Rehabilitation and Correction. This strategy is used for the adjudicated delinquent returned to the community on probation or parole.

A number of programs located in this study reflect one or more of the strategies outlined by Wenk. The comprehensive and integrated approach to the problem which is implied by his continuum, however, is not evident in

any single program or in the entire collection considered as a whole. A piecemeal approach to the problem may be a basic weakness in existing programs designed to solve the school violence problem.

Nowlis' work in drug prevention and treatment suggests another way of viewing the problem.[3] She identifies four types of models for drug programs: the moral-legal model, the disease or public health model, the psycho-social model, and the sociocultural model. She contends that each model represents a different point of view regarding the nature of the problem and the kinds of programs which have some potential for solving the problem. At the risk of seriously distorting Nowlis' concepts, we translated these models into a school violence context:

- Moral-Legal Model. In this model, school violence is viewed in moral or legalistic terms. The violent act is the central concern in this conception and emphasis is placed on controlling incidents of violence in schools. Programs based upon this point of view tend to use security measures and law enforcement techniques. The programs classified in our survey as security systems tend to exemplify this point of view.

- Disease or Public Health Model. In this model, school violence is viewed in preventive health terms. Here, the violent act is also the central concern. Students are viewed as more or less susceptible to violent behavior and attempts are made to "vaccinate" them by measures such as prevention-oriented education programs. Our curricular and instructional programs category contains some examples of this kind of program approach.

- Psycho-Social Model. School violence is viewed mainly in psychological terms in this model. The student is the central focus in this model and the emphasis is on treating the underlying psycho-social causes of violent behavior. Efforts are made to help students who exhibit violent behavior to understand the function and meaning of their behavior and to develop techniques for correcting it. The programs in our counseling services category typify this approach.

- Sociocultural Model. Here, school violence is viewed within a larger sociocultural context. The student in relation to his sociocultural context is the central concern and the emphasis is on modifying the

environment to reduce violent behavior. School programs are designed to improve the sociocultural context by major adjustments to the physical surroundings, the curricular structure, and the scheduling or grouping of students. This approach is best exemplified by the programs in our organizational modifications category although a few programs in each of the other three categories also reflect this orientation.

Other examples of structures for cataloging problems (or programs to solve problems) were found in studies conducted by Westinghouse Electric Company, Schafer and Polk, and Brodsky and Knudten.[4]

Still another approach to understanding the nature of the problem and the kinds of programs designed to solve the problem was generated in the present study. Our view focuses on the interrelated nature of the problems of violence and disruption in schools. This point of view was expressed frequently by educators who described their programs in the telephone survey and in the working conferences. Figure 1 indicates the wide range of school and nonschool factors which educators believe contribute to the problem.

School Factors	Non-School Factors
Building Size	Attitude--Nothing Can Be Done
Class Size	Boy-Girl Triangles
Dreariness of School Building	Community Response to Problem
Educators Unwilling to Acknowledge Problems	Family Feuds
Expectations of the Schools	Ineffective Juvenile Justice System
Failure of Administrators to Report Crimes	Lack of Community Awareness
Forced Attendance	Lack of Coordination of Community Services
Ignorance of Due Process	Lack of Multi-Cultural Understanding
Lack of an Alternative to Suspension	Lack of Parental Interest
Lack of Due Process	News Media Cause Problems
Lack of Parent-Educator Unity	Parents, Community Workers Confront Teachers
Lack of Professional Unity	Police Handling of Students
Lack of Sufficient Commitment to Problem	
Lack of Teacher-Student Relations	
School Response to Problem	
Staff Hostility, Aggressiveness	
Staff Inadequacy	
Whole Curriculum	

Figure 1. Educators' Perceptions of Factors Contributing to the Problem of School Violence and Disruption

Practically all of the respondents suggested that two or more of the factors detailed in Figure 1 contribute to the problem in any given situation. This interrelatedness is also reflected in the statements of educators at the working conferences:

"Everything stems from drugs."

"The curriculum as it is now is inadequate and a recognized cause of student apathy, unrest, disruption, and--in many instances--rebellion and violence."

"Vandalism contributed toward further violent acts."

"Fear of violence may precipitate other problems and disruptions of the educational process."

In an effort to describe the interrelated nature of the problem, we developed a composite view of a school with serious problems of violence and disruption (Figure 2). This composite presents the view that school violence represents specific patterns of behavior which affect each other and exacerbate the problem. To be more specific, Figure 2 indicates three major kinds of factors in an overall pattern of school violence:

- School factors including school staff, the curriculum, procedures for how staff and students interact (referred to as the behavior code), and physical facilities.
- Student factors encompassing the full range of needs, interests, behavior, and attitudes of youth attending school.
- Neighborhood factors defined as the environment from which the students come and whose influences affect the ways students relate with each other, the school staff, and the physical facilities. As members of the neighborhood, parents and other relatives are considered powerful influences as are so-called outsiders or intruders who do violence to students, staff, and school property.

The arrows in Figure 2 suggest some ways that violent patterns of behavior can set off a chain reaction in schools. For example:

- Parents-School Staff: On the one side, we heard of parents attacking teachers verbally and at times physically; of parents suing school superintendents, principals, and teachers. On the other side, we heard that teachers and principals rarely call parents with good news--more often news arrives at the home after a serious misdeed.

- School Staff-Students: We heard of students attacking teachers and administrators verbally and physically; of school staff having personal property stolen or damaged; of classrooms being vandalized. In contrast, we heard of teachers giving up--just putting in time, but not teaching; of teachers verbally attacking students--alone and in front of their peers; of frequent threats of suspension or expulsion; of students receiving physical punishment.

- Students-Facility: We heard of students stealing school property, starting fires, disfiguring buildings, destroying classrooms. In contrast, we heard of run-down buildings and buildings like prisons or fortresses.

- Student-Student: We heard of student fights, knifings, and murders; of extortion rings; of students destroying school work or personal property; of students using and selling drugs.

- Curriculum-Behavior Code: We heard of rigid curricula which did not fit student needs, interests, or goals; of arbitrary behavior codes randomly enforced; of students becoming trapped in continuing cycles of failure.

- Family-Students: We heard of families that reinforce or even support the use of drugs; of families reinforcing the use of violence; of families deprecating the school experience.

- Neighborhood-Students: We heard of neighborhoods structured into gang turfs and of gang fights spilling over into the schools; of neighborhoods involved in racial or class conflicts where those conflicts spill over into the schools.

This composite dramatizes the dynamic interrelationship of various violent and disruptive patterns of behavior currently found in some schools. If expanded and developed, it may also provide a reference which could help school staff pinpoint the nature of the problem in their particular school.

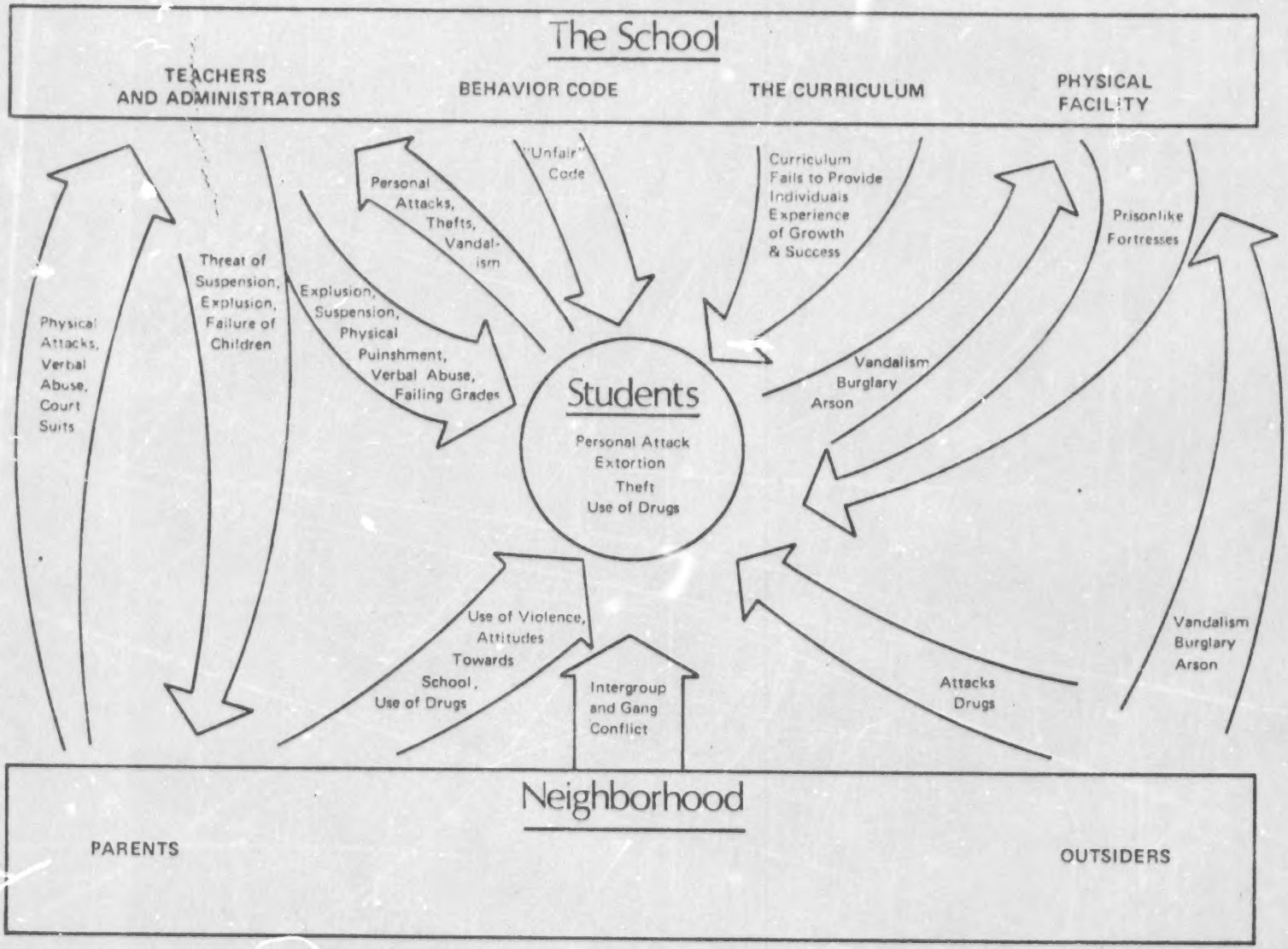

Figure 2. RBS Synthesis of Problem

The same structure can be used to describe the kinds of program solutions which are currently underway to reduce the problem of school violence and disruption. Figure 3 shows the major activities which schools are using to break the patterns of behavior described in Figure 2. For example:

- To break the pattern of conflict between parents and school staff, we heard of administrators being selected for their community relations skills; of teachers and administrators returning to live in the neighborhood; of schools offering programs which met parent needs and interests; of parents being involved in the governance of the schools; and of parents working in the schools as monitors, aides, substitute teachers.

- To break the pattern of conflict between school staff and students, we heard of teachers being selected because they know and are committed to help and teach that school's students; of teachers receiving training to increase their knowledge and understanding of students and to improve their skill in planning lessons, making clear their objectives and standards, and providing alternative instructional means for achieving those objectives; of the curriculum being modified so that alternative programs are offered and multiple measures of success are used; of the behavior code being redeveloped on a regular basis with student input; and of students helping school staff to enforce the behavior code.

- To break the pattern of conflict among students, we heard of schools developing programs to help students acquire personal management skills, clarify their values, learn ways of resolving conflicts without resorting to violence, and improve their interpersonal skills.

- To break patterns of conflict among parents, students, and school staff, we heard of broadened counseling services for the family as a whole and for family and school staff members together.

- To protect school facilities, we heard of efforts to increase community use of the building; of community activities to improve the building; of security measures taken to reduce the number of entry points and to detect unwanted entries; and of increased school-police cooperation.

- Finally, we heard of schools participating more actively with other community agencies to increase community awareness that the schools exist for community purposes.

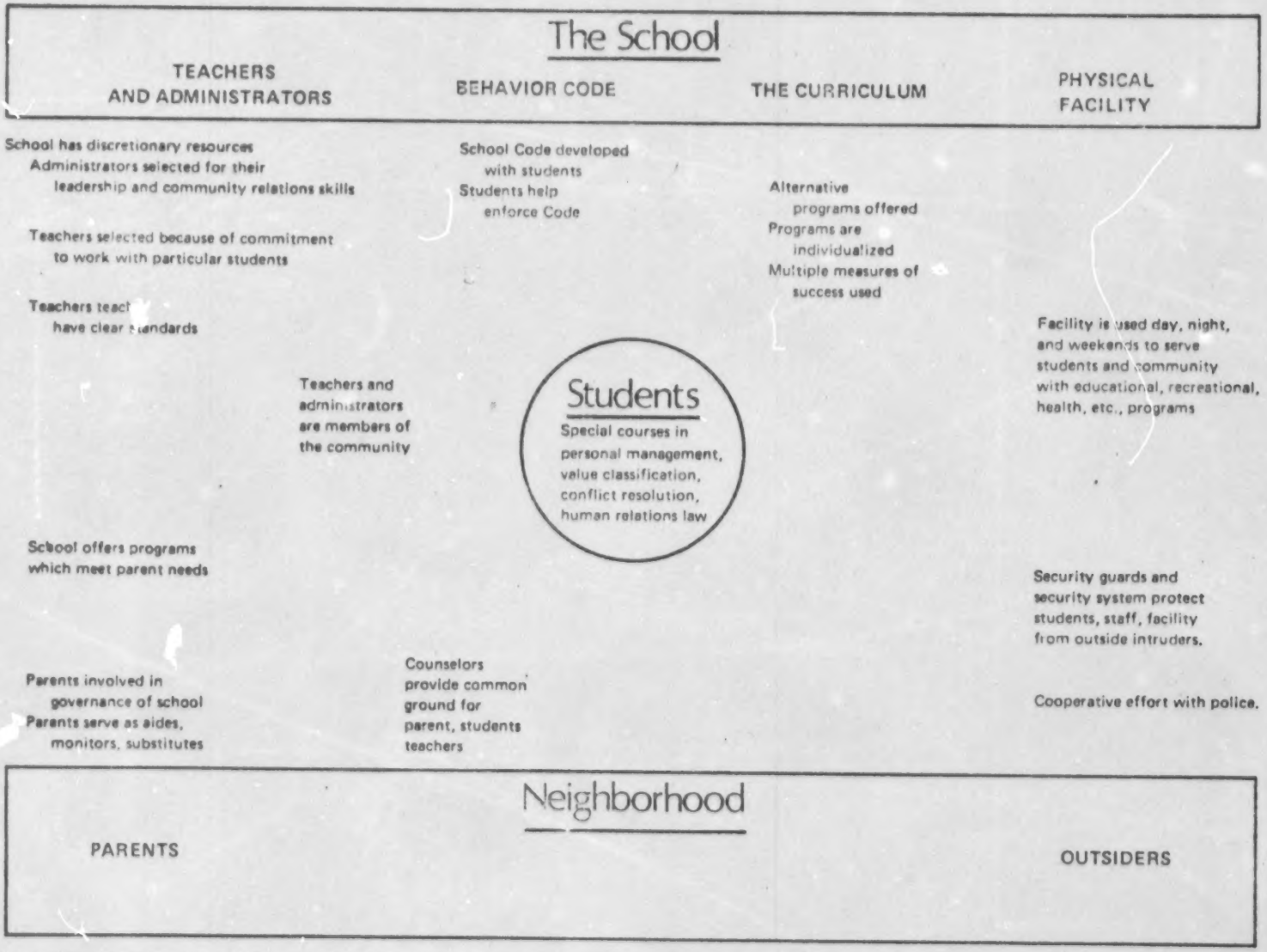
The School
TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS
BEHAVIOR CODE
THE CURRICULUM
PHYSICAL FACILITY
School has discretionary resources
Administrators selected for their leadership and community relations skills
Teachers selected because of commitment to work with particular students
Teachers teach
have clear standards
School Code developed with students
Students help enforce Code
Alternative programs offered
Programs are individualized
Multiple measures of success used
Facility is used day, night, and weekends to serve students and community with educational, recreational, health, etc., programs
Teachers and administrators are members of the community
Students
Special courses in personal management, value classification, conflict resolution, human relations law
School offers programs which meet parent needs
Security guards and security system protect students, staff, facility from outside intruders.
Parents involved in governance of school
Parents serve as aides, monitors, substitutes
Counselors provide common ground for parent, students teachers
Cooperative effort with police.
Neighborhood
PARENTS
OUTSIDERS

Figure 3. RBS Synthesis of Existing Solutions

Results of Analysis

From these studies several important ideas can be derived. First, it seems that violent and disruptive behavior varies in many ways--by individual, time, and place. Since the underlying causes of such behavior are not clear, no single or simple solution of the problem exists. An effective strategy seems to require a problem-solving approach which includes an analysis of a specific situation, the specification of desired changes, and the selection of appropriate activities to solve the problem.

Second, no simple relationships between cause and effect have been identified. Violent behavior is influenced by many environmental factors--in the school, the neighborhood, and the society at large. Prevention and intervention programs should mobilize and use all available resources since no single group can provide a workable solution to the problem.

Third, violent behavior occurs within a specific social and cultural context. Any program designed to control, prevent, or treat the problem of school violence should include consideration of the effects of violent behavior on the learning climate in the school and on the rights of students, teachers, and parents who may be victimized.

Fourth, violent and disruptive behavior is interactive and may set off a chain reaction in schools. Thus, one violent action may lead to another and result in a vicious cycle. Similarly, programs designed to combat violence in schools by breaking existing patterns of behavior may have widespread effects on other problems being experienced in the schools.

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

In this chapter, we have discussed the scope of existing programs together with perceptions of their effectiveness and their sources of funding. We also related the programs identified to various models found in the literature and to an RBS composite view of a school experiencing violence and disruption.

Information on programs designed to reduce school violence and disruption was mainly gathered in a telephone survey. We found:

- Promising practices do exist in all areas of the country and in all types of school districts.
- A review of over 130 programs indicates that:
  - Each individual program is tailored to the unique needs and conditions of the local school situation.
  - As proposed solutions, these programs seem to reflect many different approaches, e.g., security systems, counseling services, curricular/instructional programs, and organizational modifications.
  - Although little hard evidence is available, many programs seem to be effectively reducing problems of violence and disruption in schools.
  - One of the major factors contributing to program success appears to be close cooperation among school personnel, people from outside community agencies, students, parents, and members of the community at large.

These findings have four overall implications for a federal assistance program. First, since promising practices do exist and experienced people are available, a federal assistance program should provide mechanisms which can be used to:

- Identify promising practices and knowledgeable people in the field
- Disseminate information about effective programs

Second, recognizing that the problem of violence will vary from school to school, a federal assistance program should be designed to support the full range of approaches which might be adapted to meet the situation found in a specific school.

Third, since approaches to the problem of school violence and disruption must be carefully tailored to each local situation, a federal assistance program should provide help to school personnel in their efforts to define their specific problems and adapt existing approaches to their situation.

Fourth, a federal assistance program should emphasize the need for widespread community involvement in planning and implementing local programs since in most schools an effective long-term solution to the problem seems to require broad-based cooperation from the entire community. Indeed, cooperation of this type might be established as a basic requirement for all programs to be funded.

CHAPTER 4

NEEDS FOR ASSISTANCE

NEEDS FOR ASSISTANCE

One of the major purposes of this study was to identify the needs of schools for assistance in reducing problems of violence and disruption. This overall purpose was further defined in terms of three specific questions:

- Do educators believe schools need more knowledge and skills or additional resources to reduce problems of violence?
- Do educators feel better able to resolve some kinds of problems than others?
- What kinds of LEAA assistance do schools want to help them cope with their problems?

This chapter presents our findings with reference to each of the foregoing questions. For each question, we describe the data sources, present the available data, and discuss the implications of our findings.

NEED FOR KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS OR RESOURCES

Any significant effort to reduce the problem of violence in our schools requires knowledge and skills as well as resources. Educators should have some working knowledge of ways to reduce or eliminate problems and the skills to adapt this knowledge to the unique patterns of violence and disruption in a specific school. Furthermore, they might need resources for staff, materials, or equipment to support their efforts to prevent and control incidents of violence and disruption in their schools.

The purpose of this analysis was to determine the extent to which educators believe schools in general already have the necessary knowledge and skills as well as the resources needed. A problem in one or more of these areas would provide an indication of the kinds of assistance needed to strengthen the capabilities of schools.

The three working conferences described previously provided the primary data source for this analysis. These groups involved knowledgeable people in the field (including educators, security personnel, and students) who have direct experience with problems of school violence. This group was considered an excellent source of information about the capabilities and needs of schools.

Fifteen different groups, each including five to nine participants, were first asked to identify five priority problems in the area of violence. Each group was then asked to provide a judgment about the extent to which schools have: (1) the knowledge and skills to solve the group's five priority problems and (2) the resources needed to solve those problems.

Knowledge and Skills

Table 1 presents the conference participants' assessments of available knowledge and skills to solve their priority problems. Knowledge was defined to conference participants as having information on possible solutions, and skills was defined as the ability to identify problems as well as to select and implement approaches designed to effectively reduce those problems. The chart shows some dramatic differences of opinion across the fifteen groups.

Table 1

Group Judgments About the Availability of Knowledge and Skills to Solve Priority Problems Identified by that Group

Group	Problem 1	2	3	4	5	Average Rating
1	1	1	0	0	-	0.4
2	1	0	1	1	-	0.8
3	1	0	1	1	0	0.6
4	1	1	0	0	-	0.6
5	1	1	2	1	2	1.4
6	1	1	1	1	1	1.0
7	2	2	2	1	2	1.8
8	1	1	2	1	-	1.3
9	2	0	0	0	1	0.6
10	1	1	1	1	2	1.2
11	0	1	0	0	0	0.2
12	1	1	0	-	-	0.7
13	2	0	0	2	1	1.0
14	0	0	2	1	-	0.8
15	2	2	2	2	-	2.0
	Average rating for all groups = 0.8					

Code for Derived Group Consensus — Scoring System

0 = No Knowledge and Skills Available — At least 3 out of 4 individuals in a group indicated that Knowledge and Skills are not generally available.

1 = Some Knowledge and Skills Available — Participant judgments were about evenly split.

2 = Knowledge and Skills Available — At least 3 out of 4 individuals in a group indicated that Knowledge and Skills are generally available.

Note: A dash (-) means the group did not list as many as four (or five) priority problems.

The average ratings indicate that some groups apparently feel most schools possess virtually none of the knowledge and skills needed to solve

the priority problems which they defined (e.g., Groups 1 and 11). Other groups seem to feel that most schools do have the knowledge and skills needed to solve their priority problems (e.g., Groups 7 and 15). This diversity represents real differences of opinion since all 15 groups tended to identify and rate the same problems. In short, these groups expressed a wide range of opinions on the extent to which schools have the knowledge and skills needed to solve their major problems.

A similar pattern of diversity was also found within most of these groups although this is not indicated in the table. Average ratings were calculated for each group in order to identify the overall consensus of opinion within that group. These average ratings, however, conceal wide differences of opinion among the members of many of these groups.

The average rating for all groups combined is 0.8 which suggests that schools in general have some knowledge of alternatives and some of the skills needed to adapt programs to their problems of violence and disruption. This average may be an overestimate of the true situation, however, since many knowledgeable conference participants indicated that their estimates of the level of knowledge and skills generally available in schools actually reflect their own experience and consequently may be too high.

In light of the wide range of opinion on this issue, our conclusion is that although some schools apparently have the knowledge and skills needed to resolve their problems most schools need a lot of help. To be more specific, many schools do not have information on possible solutions to their problems or the skills needed to identify their problem or to select and implement appropriate solutions. This conclusion suggests that each school staff should be considered separately in terms of the kinds of assistance it requires.

Resources

Table 2 provides data on the conference participants' judgments about the availability of needed resources. Resources were defined to the conference participants as sufficient staff, facilities, equipment, and materials to plan and implement specific programs. This definition implies but does not directly mention financial assistance (to acquire staff, facilities, equipment, and materials) in order to guard against possible respondent bias toward self-serving requests for more money.

Table 2

Group Judgments About the Availability of Resources to Solve Priority Problems Identified by that Group

Group	Problem 1	2	3	4	5	Average Rating
1	1	0	1	1	0	0.6
2	1	0	0	0	-	0.3
3	0	0	1	0	0	0.2
4	0	0	1	2	0	0.6
5	0	0	1	1	1	0.6
6	0	0	1	0	1	0.4
7	1	0	1	1	1	0.8
8	1	2	1	1	-	1.3
9	1	0	1	0	0	0.6
10	1	0	1	0	1	0.6
11	0	1	1	1	1	0.8
12	1	0	1	-	-	0.7
13	1	0	0	0	0	0.2
14	1	0	1	2	-	1.0
15	0	0	0	0	0	0.0

Average rating for all groups = 0.6

Code for Derived Group Consensus — Scoring System

0 = No Resources Available — At least 3 out of 4 individuals in a group indicated that Resources are not generally available.

1 = Some Resources Available — Participant judgments were about evenly split.

2 = Resources Available — At least 3 out of 4 individuals in a group indicated that Resources are generally available.

Note: A dash (-) means the group did not list as many as four (or five) priority problems.

These data show fairly consistent agreement across the various groups that schools do not have the resources needed to deal with problems of

violence. This same consensus was also found within these groups since group members generally tended to agree on the lack of available resources.

The average rating for all groups is 0.6 which suggests a need for more resources to handle the problems of school violence. Our conclusion, based on these data and the judgments of the facilitators and leaders of the 15 groups, is that most participants honestly feel that the limited resources currently available are just not sufficient to cope with the scope and complexity of the problem.

Needs in Relation to Specific Problems

The purpose of this analysis was to examine whether schools feel better prepared to deal with some problems than others. Conference participants were asked to provide group judgments about the extent to which schools have the knowledge and skills or the resources to solve the problems of violence given priority by each of the 15 groups.

Knowledge and Skills. Table 3 provides detailed information on group judgments of the availability of knowledge and skills for specific problems. These data suggest that educators do feel better prepared to handle some types of problems than others.

Table 3

Number of Groups Indicating the Availability of Knowledge and Skills to Solve Specific Problems*

	Group Judgment			Number of Groups Identifying This Priority
	Available	Somewhat Available	Not Available	
Vandalism	3	5	2	10
Personal Assault	3	4	2	9
Gangs, Intergroup Clashes	0	5	4	9
Fear of Violence	0	6	2	8
Intruders	6	1	0	7
Drugs	0	4	1	5
Weapons	1	1	2	4

* n = 15 groups

On the one hand, the groups tended to agree that, while schools do have the knowledge and skills needed to cope with the problem of intruders, schools do not have the knowledge and skills needed to combat such problems as gangs and intergroup clashes, fear of violence, and drugs. The first two problems were given priority by 9 and 8 of the groups respectively, while drugs were identified as a priority problem by only 5 groups. The groups did not seem to agree on the extent to which schools have the knowledge and skills needed to handle the problems of personal assault, vandalism, and weapons.

Resources. Table 4 provides a detailed breakdown of group opinions on the resources needed to solve specific problems. As might be expected from the data reported above, conference participants did not feel sufficient resources were available for any of the seven major problems listed in the chart. The strongest need for help was expressed with reference to gang problems, assault, vandalism, and fear of violence--all problems which were identified as priorities by over half of the 15 groups.

Table 4

Number of Groups Indicating the Availability of Resources to Solve Specific Problems*

	Group Judgment			Number of Groups Identifying This Priority
	Available	Somewhat Available	Not Available	
Vandalism	0	5	5	10
Personal Assault	0	4	5	9
Gangs, Intergroup Clashes	0	2	7	9
Fear of Violence	0	3	5	8
Intruders	0	4	3	7
Drugs	0	3	2	5
Weapons	0	3	1	4

* n = 15 groups

NEED FOR LEAA ASSISTANCE

The results reported in the preceding sections suggest that schools have a definite need for additional resources as well as more knowledge and skills to reduce the problems of school violence. Given this situation, what kinds of LEAA assistance do schools want to help them cope with these problems? This question provides the focus for this section.

At the outset, RBS staff developed a frame of reference for use in collecting and analyzing data on the need for LEAA assistance. In general, a federal funding agency might provide three types of assistance to schools: (1) provide direct financial aid, (2) fund technical assistance to schools, (3) contract for research and development efforts. Since a number of specific kinds of programs might be funded under each of these categories, these three kinds of assistance provided a framework for our efforts to gather information about school needs.

Two different sets of data were analyzed to obtain the views of knowledgeable people about the kinds of LEAA assistance needed. First, the questionnaire data collected in an earlier LEAA study were reanalyzed by RBS to identify the financial and technical assistance roles suggested for LEAA by respondents in 180 different cities throughout the United States.[1] Second, each of the 15 groups in the three working conferences was asked to suggest types of assistance LEAA might provide to help district personnel reduce their problems of school violence and disruption. Our analyses of these two sets of data are reported separately.

Questionnaire Survey

A questionnaire survey focusing on delinquency prevention programs in schools was conducted in 1972 as part of a larger study funded by LEAA. The

results of this survey--since it addressed school needs for LEAA assistance in reducing school delinquency problems--were viewed as an important data source for RBS efforts to study ways LEAA might take the initiative in reducing the problem of school violence. Delinquency and violence are closely related problems which often involve the same students and similar kinds of violent and disruptive behavior. Fortunately, the data obtained in the earlier study were available for reanalysis within the framework of this study.[2]

In the 1972 study, a questionnaire was mailed to 390 superintendents of local boards of education to request their replies to seven questions dealing with the scope of their activity in delinquency prevention. The focus of this analysis is Question 3, "What can LEAA do to enhance delinquency prevention and/or reentry activities within school systems?"

Table 5 shows the composition of the sample, the number of responses to the overall questionnaire, and the number of responses to Question 3. The table shows that about 42 percent of the school districts responded to the questionnaire and about 67 percent of those respondents answered Question 3. In other words, only 34 percent of the 390 superintendents sampled provided any suggestions on ways LEAA might enhance delinquency prevention and/or reentry programs.

Table 5

Response of Sampled School Districts by Size of Population Served

Population Size	Number Queried	Number of Responses to Questionnaire	Number of Responses to Question 3
250,000 +	50	27	22
100,000 - 249,999	90	49	34
50,000 - 99,999	90	38	25
25,000 - 49,999	110	44	30
20,000 - 24,999	50	22	16
Totals	390	180	127

Source: S. L. Brodsky and R. D. Knudten. Strategies for Delinquency Prevention in the Schools. University of Alabama, 1973.

Table 6 presents suggestions regarding the kinds of programs LEAA should provide by size of the respondents' school districts. These data were not presented in the original report; rather, they represent our analysis of the raw data responses. Only suggestions mentioned by three or more respondents were included in the table. These suggestions on the kinds of programs LEAA should provide are grouped into four major categories--three of which correspond to the three major types of LEAA assistance discussed earlier in this section. A fourth category was added to include general suggestions.

Table 6

Respondents' Suggestions About Programs LEAA Should Provide

Respondents' Suggestions	Population Served by Respondents (in thousands)					
	250+	100-250	50-100	25-50	20-25	Total
General Suggestions to LEAA						
Interagency Cooperation	8	6	6	10	3	33
Prevention Programs	8	6	6	10	2	32
Information about LEAA (its goals, priorities, what it will fund)	3	6	5	4	5	23
Technical Assistance						
Information about promising practices	4	6	7	10	2	29
Workshops/training for teachers, administrators	5	2	3	7	1	18
Technical assistance/consultation	2	3	1	5	2	13
Financial Assistance						
Continue existing programs and begin new programs	9	17	5	8	1	40
Counseling/guidance/probation programs	4	5	3	5	2	19
Community involvement programs	2	7	4	4	1	18
Reentry/rehabilitation programs	5	2	1	5	2	15
Employment, work-study, vocational education programs	-	5	2	3	3	13
Out of school centers/programs	2	1	3	2	4	12
Planning and proposal preparation	3	-	-	1	1	5
Recreation	-	1	1	-	1	3
Equipment	-	2	-	1	-	3
Information to public about extent of problem	-	-	-	3	-	3
Outside speakers, law enforcement speakers	-	1	1	-	1	3
Research and Development						
Study of problem/conduct research	2	2	-	3	-	7

Source: RBS analysis of raw data responses found in R. D. Knudten. Data Base: Delinquency Prevention and the Schools.

The first category contains responses which do not directly answer the question but rather provide general suggestions to LEAA. Interagency cooperation reflects the feeling in a large number of school districts (33) that schools, law enforcement agencies, juvenile justice agencies, referral agencies, funding sources, and community groups should cooperate in trying to solve the problem. Prevention programs seems to be a general suggestion by many school districts (32). The word "prevention" was mentioned in the title of the study, however, and this may be one reason for the popularity of this recommendation. In addition, a number of respondents (23) asked for more information about LEAA, its programs, funding policies, objectives, etc., in order to help them suggest funding activities for LEAA.

The second category, technical assistance, includes requests for services to schools. A substantial number of respondents apparently felt they needed technical assistance programs. Thus, 29 respondents suggested that LEAA provide information about promising practices, 18 recommended workshops/training for teachers and administrators, and 13 suggested that LEAA provide technical assistance/consultation. Moreover, technical support to schools was suggested by respondents from school districts of all sizes. In short, the data indicate strong interest on the part of respondents in technical support for their delinquency prevention efforts.

The third category, financial assistance, includes recommendations which involve the direct funding of school programs. A large number of respondents (40) recommended general financial assistance to continue existing programs and begin new programs. This general recommendation was stated more specifically by other respondents who suggested that LEAA fund specific kinds of

programs, e.g., counseling/guidance/probation programs (19), community involvement programs (18), reentry/rehabilitation programs (15), etc. Relatively few respondents suggested that funds be provided for non-program-related activities (e.g., planning and proposal preparation (5), equipment (3), etc.). In sum, the recommendations in this category showed a clear interest on the part of the respondents sampled (regardless of school district size) in direct financial assistance--mainly to develop a variety of delinquency programs in schools and continue existing programs.

The fourth category, research and development, involves funds for outside agencies to study the problem or develop comprehensive solutions. Activities of this type tend to be conducted by agencies outside the schools (e.g., R&D agencies). Only seven respondents recommended the only activity included in this category--the suggestion that LEAA support a study of and research on the problem. The small number of recommendations in this category suggests that respondents were more interested in direct financial assistance or immediate technical support than in long-range R&D efforts which are largely independent of the schools.

Working Conferences

The participants in the three working conferences were also asked to suggest roles LEAA might play in helping school districts. In contrast to the earlier LEAA study, these data are based on group discussions rather than questionnaire responses, focused on violence and disruption rather than delinquency, and were collected in 1975 as opposed to 1972. Furthermore, the working conference participants were provided a resource list to use in discussing roles LEAA might play rather than asked to respond to an open-ended question.

The instructions provided for this discussion activity were:

> As a group, you have identified in the last exercise where you think school districts in general lack the knowledge and skills and resources to solve the problems of disruption. In this exercise, identify, as a group, the kinds of roles LEAA could play to help school districts solve the problems of disruption and why you support each role. The group can use the list on the following page as a resource.

The resource list (Figure 1) presented a number of examples of federal funding alternatives for each group to use as a focus for their discussions and suggestions.

Examples of Federal Funding Alternatives

1. Provide telephone and/or return mail service to educators about alternative ways to cope with specific problems.
2. Publish pamphlets for special audiences, e.g., security directors, teachers, principals.
3. Provide training on a regional basis to schools, law enforcement, and other appropriate audiences on effective programs.
4. Provide assistance of qualified practitioners to help local staff to plan, adapt, and implement appropriate programs.
5. Provide funds for school district to plan programs.
6. Provide funds to start programs, e.g., equipment, materials, staff training.
7. Provide funds to support first-year and/or second-year expenditures other than start-up funds, e.g., staff salaries, facilities, maintenance.
8. Provide funds for school district to continue effective programs.
9. Evaluate currently operating programs to identify effective practices and programs.
10. Provide funds to R&D agencies for development of new programs in collaboration with cooperating school systems.

Figure 1. Resource List Used in RRS Working Conferences

Table 7 indicates the types of strategies conference participants included in their group recommendations to LEAA on federal assistance programs.

Table 7

Group Recommendations for Federal Assistance Strategies

Funding Alternatives	Service								Direct Funding		Other
	1. Telephone Inquiries	2. Printed Material	3. Training	4. Technical Assistance	5. Planning Grants	6. Start-up Costs	7. 1st Year Funds	8. Continuation Funds	9. Identification of Promising Practices	10. Research and Development	
Group 1					✓	✓	✓	✓			
2			✓	✓							
3			✓			✓		✓			
4	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	
5	✓								✓		
6			✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		
7	✓	✓		✓	✓				✓		
8			✓		✓	✓			✓		
9			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	
10						✓					
11			✓					✓			
12			✓	✓		✓			✓		
13				✓				✓	✓		
14				✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
15	NO INFORMATION AVAILABLE										
Totals	3	1	8	8	8	9	3	6	9	2	

Participants expressed support for some service strategies on the part of the federal government. They expressed a strong preference for strategies which involve actual personal contact with qualified practitioners and specialists (e.g., training and technical assistance). Most participants

indicated that additional printed material (pamphlets, newsletters, etc.) would not be helpful.

Participants also recommended that a federal assistance program provide funds directly to schools. Funds for school-initiated efforts and start-up funds were the strategies most commonly recommended for such direct funding to schools.

Considerable disagreement was expressed on the value of a federal program to provide continuation funding for current programs. Some conference participants argued that the schools require substantial funds if their efforts are to be successful, and that without continuation funds schools would be unable to undertake any significant efforts to reduce school violence. Other participants felt that their experience with the Elementary and Secondary Education Act--which resulted in the cancellation of many promising local activities when federal funding ended after three years--was sufficient reason to avoid this strategy. A few conference participants recommended that LEAA support a few programs on a continuing basis to demonstrate particularly promising practices.

The identification and evaluation of promising practices was a highly rated federal assistance strategy--provided that the information collected is used in conjunction with other strategies. Research and development efforts were not considered an effective approach to reducing school violence and disruption, possibly due to the fact that few educators had seen any results from such efforts. As experts in their field, they seemed to believe that sufficient knowledge and skills are available to initiate a national

effort without waiting for the long-delayed results achieved through an R&D approach.

Overall, conference participants recommended approaches starting with the identification and evaluation of promising programs more frequently than any other alternative. Typically, this suggested starting point was followed by training, technical assistance, or a combination of the two. This suggests that conference participants believe schools are most interested in (1) obtaining information on effective programs and (2) training and technical assistance to implement one or more of the programs selected.

The technical support services recommended were often followed by suggestions that LEAA fund planning grants, start-up costs, or both. These funding alternatives involve direct financial assistance to schools and support our findings on the inadequacy of current funding levels for initiating new school programs. Conference participants appeared to consider direct financial assistance as important as technical support but seemed to believe that technical support activities represent the point of departure for a more comprehensive funding program which eventually leads to direct financial assistance.

The findings from the working conferences were similar in many respects to the results of the questionnaire survey. Conference participants and questionnaire respondents agreed on the need for financial assistance programs and technical support programs and identified similar priorities in each area. This level of agreement is noteworthy in view of the differences in the timing, technique, and focus of these two studies.

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

In this chapter, we have discussed our analyses of two sets of data--the responses to a questionnaire survey conducted in 1972 and discussions during three working conferences which took place in 1975--to determine what kinds of assistance educators believe LEAA might provide. We found:

- Educators believe that:
  - Schools do not have sufficient information on programs which have been effective in reducing school violence.
  - Schools do not have the skills needed to identify their problems or to select and implement an approach designed to effectively reduce those problems.
  - Schools do not have adequate resources (in terms of staff, facilities, equipment, or materials) to plan and implement promising programs.
- Educators believe that LEAA could provide assistance by:
  - Providing various technical services: evaluating existing programs to identify those most effective; providing technical assistance to help schools plan, adapt, and implement appropriate programs; and providing training on effective approaches to the problem of school violence.
  - Providing funds to schools to enable local staff to: plan programs; initiate programs; and cover the operating costs of specific programs (less support was found for the use of federal funds for operating programs than for planning and initiating costs).
- Educators do not advocate LEAA support for the development of new programs through R&D.

These findings imply that a federal assistance program should provide both technical service and direct assistance to individual schools.

CHAPTER 5

REVIEW OF FEDERAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS

REVIEW OF FEDERAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS

This chapter presents the results of a review of selected federal assistance programs. There were two basic objectives for this review: (1) to identify in existing federal assistance programs any strategies which might suggest techniques LEAA could employ in a program to reduce school violence and (2) to provide LEAA with evidence that the experience of the U.S. Office of Education should be drawn upon as LEAA determines what kind of a program should be initiated and implemented.

In this review, six programs administered by the U.S. Office of Education were examined in detail. These programs were selected because they had a problem or improvement focus and because they featured some of the kinds of assistance requested by participants at the working conferences and described in the preceding chapter. In addition, all of these programs were modestly funded--that is, under $30 million. Figure 1 shows the relevant characteristics of the six programs reviewed.

The information for this review was basically from two sources: (1) Office of Education program descriptions and (2) federal program staff who had time to talk to our staff. Preliminary discussions with federal staff convinced us that:

- Federal programs are constantly changing--the goals, ways of using funds, and administrative procedures appear to change annually.
- Federal programs do not keep management histories which describe these changes and the reasons they were made.
- Evaluations of federal programs and of the effectiveness of the strategies used are few in number; and the ones that are available have limited value because the federal programs being evaluated changed even during the course of the evaluation and be-

cause the phenomena involved are exceedingly complex--the outcomes of schooling, the relationship of school practice to those outcomes, and the effects of various state and school district structures on the way the federal intent is reflected in the practices of specific schools.

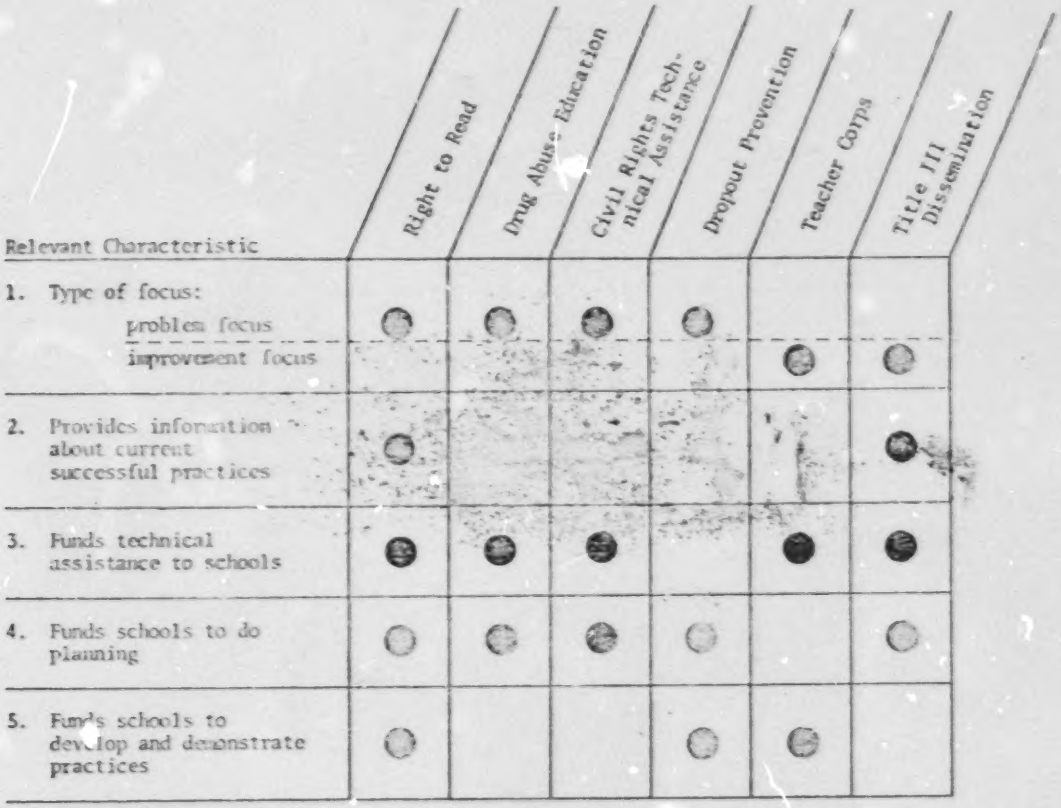

Figure 1. Relevant Characteristics of Six Federal Assistance Programs

Now we will consider each program in terms of its purpose, how it is structured, how its funds are used, and any evaluation findings available. This review will then be followed by a discussion of some issues faced by the designers of federal assistance programs and the approaches used in the six programs reviewed.

RIGHT TO READ

The Right to Read program is an example of a national effort to deal with a fundamental educational problem. Launched in 1970 as an attempt by the Commissioner of Education to create a national educational priority for reading, the program set as its goal the eradication of illiteracy by 1980. Initially, the program authorization called for annual funding to reach the $400 million level by 1974. Congress has consistently funded the program at $12 million per year.

As a national effort, Right to Read has employed multi-level strategies to focus attention and action on the problem. National impact activities have included the use of mass media and other public relations techniques to create public interest and support for the program. State level strategies involved the use of seed monies to induce state education agencies to reorganize their reading programs to fit the overall Right to Read plan. At the local level, two types of demonstration projects have been supported: (1) community-based reading academies for out-of-school youth and adults and (2) school-based programs for children.

Our review focused on the school-based programs. The thinking underlying this effort is that widespread acceptance of new educational approaches can be achieved by demonstrating the effectiveness of those approaches in a few sites and using those sites as models to be replicated elsewhere. The program is based on the assumption that functional illiteracy can be eradicated by utilizing effective practices which are currently available. A further assumption is that effectiveness must be demonstrated before schools will adopt new approaches to reading instruction.

Right to Read employs a three-part strategy to develop demonstration programs: (1) it prescribes elements of the model; (2) it funds technical assistance; and (3) it funds schools for staff training and development.

Funded districts are required to use the Right to Read problem-solving model to develop systematic plans for a reading program which involves the entire school. This model, the "School-Based Plan of Action," prescribes the kind of innovation that a school is expected to undertake, a planning process, and organizational guidelines. The diagnostic-prescriptive approach, the whole school concept, and the retraining of existing staff are emphasized.

Right to Read funds four university-based technical assistance teams to support local planning, in-service training, and problem solving in the demonstration schools. Technical assistance is also provided in the form of packaged materials developed and disseminated by the national Right to Read office.

School districts are funded to cover some program costs. Eighty-five percent of the funds awarded to schools are to be used for staff training and development. The remainder may be used for planning, implementation and dissemination. A single demonstration school receives a three-year grant of approximately $40,000 per year. In large cities, three-year grants of $100,000 per year are awarded to groups of several schools--apparently an attempt to make participation in the program more attractive to large urban school systems.

More than 100 school-based demonstration projects have been funded under this program at a total cost of $12 million. Conclusive evaluation data are not yet available as to the effectiveness of the program.[1] The Rand Corporation is currently studying the program to determine how it has been implemented at selected sites. Preliminary Rand findings indicate that school personnel had some difficulty with the "School-Based Plan of Action" due to its prescriptive nature. Rand's preliminary report states that "the rational planning model implicit in these projects may inhibit the flexibility necessary to deal with day-to-day problems."[2]

The experience of the Right to Read program suggests that it is possible to sustain a multi-level, national effort designed to solve a significant problem with a modest annual budget of $12 million. During the past four years, Right to Read has developed a highly visible program which has engaged state educational agencies, professional and civic organizations, businesses and industries, and school districts in an increasingly coordinated attack on the problem of illiteracy. The effectiveness of the program's school demonstrations and dissemination activities is still to be determined.

DRUG ABUSE EDUCATION

This program, authorized under the Drug Abuse Education Act of 1970, reached its highest level of funding--$12 million--in 1972 and 1973. At that time, a wide range of activities were funded, including curriculum development, comprehensive state planning, training of community leadership teams at regional centers, preservice education, crisis centers, and hotlines. In 1974, funding was cut in half and the program took on a new complexion. It continued the five regional training centers and the training of community-based teams, initiated new school-based team training programs, and discontinued all other program activities.

Initially, the Drug Abuse Education program considered the problem of how to teach young people about the dangers of drugs. In recent years, the problem has been defined more broadly, i.e., how to help young people modify one kind of self-destructive behavior. This revised definition is based on the premise that self-destructive drug use is a symptom of unmet needs. In view of this perspective, the Drug Abuse Education program now is designed to encourage school and community groups to study their local situation and develop strategies aimed at meeting the unmet needs of youth.

The rationale for focusing the program at the school/community level is based on the belief that solutions can be found only in local communities --in the people and institutions that influence children most strongly, i.e., schools, family, social, health, and law enforcement personnel. Program guidelines require a coordinated community effort, involving youth, parents, and community representatives in planning and implementing a project involving prevention and early intervention.

The national office supports local efforts with direct financial aid and technical assistance. Small grants averaging $8,500 are awarded to local school or community groups to cover start-up costs and release time for the people in charge of the local program. In FY 1974, the Office of Education awarded $3.4 million to support 584 local programs. A computerized contracting system enabled a small U.S.O.E. staff to process a large number of program applications.

To assist local interagency teams in acquiring the knowledge and skills needed to deal with the drug abuse problem, O.E. established and funded five regional training and development centers. Local teams attend one of these centers for an initial two-week training program, during which each team develops an action plan to be implemented when they return to their community. As each team implements their program, training center staff provide on-site technical assistance.

A recently completed evaluation of community-based teams funded under this program provides some evidence that the strategy of using small grants, training, and technical assistance to energize local resources can be effective. In the study of over 550 community teams that participated in the 1973 "Help Communities Help Themselves" program, it was found that over half of the community teams were functioning a year after training, that 80% of the teams reported that the activities they initiated are continuing, that more than 30% of the teams secured other funds to support their activities, and that teams with small target populations were more successful in starting and continuing programs, while teams with large target populations (100,000 or more) seem to do better in coordinating and upgrading existing resources.[3]

The experience of the Drug Abuse Education program suggests that a program of small grants accompanied by technical assistance can stimulate schools and communities to plan, initiate, and continue programs designed to attack a critical problem.

DESEGREGATION ASSISTANCE

Title IV of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 represents a federal effort to help schools deal with the complex problems involved in school desegregation by providing training and technical assistance in the preparation, adoption, and implementation of desegregation plans. Amendments to the Act in 1972 expanded the definition of desegregation to include activities designed to alleviate the separation of school children by sex or by degree of fluency in using the English language. Over the past ten years, the funds appropriated for implementing the Act have risen from $6 million to $26 million per year.

Civil Rights Training and Technical Assistance program funds are used in four basic ways.

1. To support the development of technical assistance units in state educational agencies. These units help school personnel assess the character of segregation in their school, prepare desegregation plans, and implement those plans.

2. To maintain university-based general assistance centers which (upon request) provide school personnel with advisory assistance on preparing and implementing desegregation plans.

3. To support training institutes at universities which present programs for teachers, counselors, supervisors, and administrators to help them deal with any educational problems occasioned by desegregation.

4. To provide funds which school districts can use to engage specialists or to provide in-service training.

The Civil Rights Training and Technical Assistance program allocates approximately 23 percent of its funds to state technical assistance units, 67 percent to university centers and institutes, and 10 percent directly to school districts.

The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights has recently reviewed the history and operation of this program. In a report released in 1973, the Commission expressed concern that the programs developed by state technical assistance units and university desegregation centers tended to impose white middle-class values and standards of achievement on minority students. The Commission found evidence that schools and university centers and institutes used funds for traditional training in compensatory education, ignoring the more difficult problem of providing training in areas such as interracial and intercultural understanding.[4] In program regulations currently in effect these issues have been taken into account. A comprehensive evaluation of the program is currently being conducted by the Rand Corporation.

The experience of the Civil Rights Training and Technical Assistance program suggests that with problems as complex as school desegregation multiple assistance strategies may be required to take advantage of existing staff capabilities within the many agencies involved.

DROPOUT PREVENTION

The Dropout Prevention program, ESEA Title VIII, was authorized in 1967 for the purpose of developing educational practices that would reduce the number of school dropouts, i.e., the number of children who do not complete their elementary and secondary education.

Funds were granted to school districts to support the development of innovative demonstration projects in schools with high dropout rates and a concentration of low-income students. Projects were required to be managed and evaluated in such a way that adequate data would be available to make replication in other school districts possible.

The program was operated for six years and funded a total of 19 school districts. These districts were funded for a period of five years at an annual level of $500,000 to $1,000,000 for urban districts and $100,000 to $400,000 for rural districts. Overall expenditures for this program amounted to $42 million.

Program guidelines required funded sites to: develop comprehensive programs; involve all school and community groups in program development and operation; follow a prescribed management procedure; and document program results. Project staff were encouraged to purchase outside technical assistance.

The available data indicate that most of these projects were effective in reducing the dropout rate among the targeted students. Reports on some projects indicate that suspensions have declined and that attendance rates and student attitudes have improved.[5] The program was less successful in

the area of dissemination. Information on the successful practices developed is limited to brief descriptions of the 19 projects, and no provision has been made to help other school districts replicate these projects.

The Dropout Prevention program provides an example of a federal effort to ameliorate a national educational problem with a development and demonstration strategy. This strategy seems to have resulted in a small number of demonstration projects which did, in part, accomplish this program goal. The strategy used, however, apparently did not benefit other school districts.

TEACHER CORPS

The Teacher Corps program is a national response to the need for qualified teachers to serve school children in low-income areas--urban and rural--as well as juvenile delinquents, youth offenders, and adult criminal offenders. Originally authorized under the Education Professions Development Act of 1965, Teacher Corps has outlived its parent program.

Recognizing the current teacher surplus, the 1974 amendments changed the Teacher Corps focus from recruiting and training new teachers to retraining existing teachers along with a small number of new teachers to work in low-income areas. This new focus is based on the assumption that one way to strengthen education offered in low-income areas is to retrain as a unit the entire staff of a specific school.

Teacher Corps currently funds a number of demonstration projects which are proposed by a consortium including a school district and an institution of higher education. The purpose of these projects is to improve the education provided in a low-income area by retraining the current school staff along with a small group of new teachers. Teacher Corps requires each of the projects funded to have at least one of the following characteristics:

1. Training provided by an interdisciplinary team;
2. Training to help the school staff develop specific competencies;
3. Training to help the school staff to apply research findings;
4. Training to help the school staff implement an alternative program;
5. Training which results in the establishment of a center for continuing in-service training for the school district staff.

Teacher Corps projects are funded at levels as high as $350,000. These funds cover the costs for higher education staff involved in recruiting interns and providing training and technical assistance to interns and school district staff; school district costs for releasing teachers and administrators for training and planning; materials and equipment costs for new programs; and costs related to managing and evaluating the project.

A number of Teacher Corps evaluation studies have mentioned the need for a better way to monitor the demonstration projects in order to determine what assistance is needed by local projects. The Teacher Corps' National Advisory Council has recommended amendments to the legislation to permit the Corps to provide technical assistance for the whole range of project activities rather than limiting such assistance to recruitment, enrollment, and selection. This recommendation is based on evidence which indicates that the project directors need technical assistance to improve both the content and management of these projects.[6]

The experience of the Teacher Corps suggests that (1) the entire staff of a school needs to be involved in an improvement effort if it is to be successful and (2) successful improvement requires the extensive retraining of that staff. In the case of the Teacher Corps, this retraining is provided by an outside resource.

ESEA TITLE III

ESEA Title III is a program intended to stimulate the development of new educational programs. An interesting contrast to the other five programs described, this program allows school district personnel great freedom in formulating projects to achieve any one of a broad range of objectives. Projects are funded for three years at an average rate of approximately $90,000 per year. The program is primarily administered through the states, although 15 percent of the funds are reserved for grants awarded at the discretion of the U.S. Office of Education.

An important feature of Title III is the provision of funds to schools for a three-year period for the development of exemplary programs. The assumptions underlying this program feature were that (1) three years is the minimum period of time required for a newly developed program to become securely implanted in a school and (2) that time period would improve the chances that these programs would survive after federal support was withdrawn.

Assessments of Title III's effectiveness as a demonstration program have focused on two questions: (1) Were the projects innovative? (2) Did they continue beyond the three-year federal funding period? Studies conducted during the early years of this program indicated that it was moderately successful in terms of both of these questions.[7] An evaluation currently being conducted by the Rand Corporation should provide additional information on both of these questions during the coming year.[8]

Having supported the development of exemplary programs in demonstration sites, U.S.O.E. program staff have recently focused their attention on

ways to help other schools benefit from the development-demonstration projects which have been successful. It was decided that part of the 15 percent of total funds administered by U.S.O.E. would be used to develop a strategy to help schools utilize projects which have been adequately evaluated; accordingly, $8 million was allocated for dissemination during the current fiscal year. The dissemination strategy involves three key elements: (1) state facilitators, (2) school district personnel who have developed validated programs, and (3) school district personnel who wish to adopt validated projects.

State facilitators are funded at approximately $200,000 annually to assist interested district personnel to select a suitable program for adoption and to acquire assistance in implementing the program adopted. School districts with demonstration sites are funded to help other schools implement their programs. Adopting and adapting schools are funded--through their state facilitator--to release staff and cover any incidental expenses related to the selection, adaption, and adoption of a validated program.

State facilitators provide general assistance to schools. They promote the awareness of and stimulate interest in exemplary projects, match the needs of adopting districts to the program objectives of developers, and arrange both site visits and training sessions for the staff of adopting schools. Demonstration site personnel prepare program descriptions and training materials and provide both on-site demonstrations and specialized assistance to school personnel implementing the program they developed.

The experience of the ESEA Title III program indicates that the development and demonstration of exemplary practices will not necessarily result in the widespread adoption of those practices. Recent dissemination efforts suggest that adopting schools need ongoing personalized assistance if they are to use practices developed elsewhere. The Title III dissemination strategy is currently being evaluated.

DESIGN ISSUES

In this section, four issues faced by designers of federal assistance programs are discussed in light of the approaches taken by the six O.E. assistance programs just described.

- To what extent should school district personnel be involved in the task of defining the problem to be solved?
- To what extent should the funds supplied to local school districts be limited to specific amounts and specific activities?
- To what extent should a federal program prescribe the practices to be used?
- To what extent should a federal program be designed to help school personnel develop essential problem-solving, planning, and management capabilities?

Involvement of School District Personnel in Problem Definition

One of the issues facing the designers of federal assistance programs for schools, which have as their purpose the solution or amelioration of a problem, concerns the extent to which they should involve school district personnel in defining the problem. From one perspective, designers feel that the more precisely they themselves can define the problem, the more probable it is that the program will achieve its purpose. From the perspective of the school district personnel, the argument can be made that the people who are trying to solve the problem should define it. Relevant to the latter perspective is the finding that "...federal money is used (by school districts) for its intended purposes only if the federal purpose is congruent with local plans.[9]

The four problem-centered programs reviewed in this chapter have all taken a balanced approach to this issue. On the one hand, they have made

relatively precise problem and purpose statements which suggest the kinds of evidence which ideally will be used to assess program success. On the other hand, school district personnel are encouraged to use the problem statement as only a starting point and are urged to define the problem in terms of their specific situation and of the factors that appear to be contributing to the problem. The assumption underlying this approach is that district personnel should have the freedom to use their own criteria, as well as the federal criteria, in judging the success of the local effort.

This analysis suggests that, although LEAA may want to define the problem of school violence and disruption with relative precision, local districts should be free to consider the LEAA definition a point of departure for a definition which applies more closely to their situation.

Limitations on the Use of Federal Funds for Schools

Another issue faced by federal program designers concerns the extent to which the funds supplied to school districts should be limited to specific amounts or restricted to specific activities. The six programs reviewed here reflect different positions on this issue:

- The Drug Abuse Education and Civil Rights Training and Technical Assistance programs provide funds to schools to cover costs associated with planning and staff training. The costs of implementing and operating new programs are not covered. The size of the grants under Civil Rights varies according to the size of the district and the staff; Drug Abuse Education grants are limited to $10,000.

- The Teacher Corps provides funds to schools to cover costs associated with training and retraining school staff; these funds can exceed $100,000 over a two-year period.

- Right to Read, Dropout Prevention, and Title III (for developing innovative projects) have provided funds to schools to

cover costs related to developing and demonstrating new educational programs. These awards range from $40,000 to $1,000,000 (for selected urban demonstrations) for two, three, and five-year grants.

- Title III (for dissemination efforts) provides small amounts of money through state facilitators to enable school district personnel to study new programs and obtain help in adapting them to their schools.

No evaluations of the relative merits of such different strategies to help schools solve problems or make improvements have been conducted. Perhaps the most important point which can be made on this issue is that both the Drug Abuse Education program and Title III (dissemination) have been able to effect changes in schools with very small amounts of money.

Federal Advocacy of Selected Practices

Another issue federal program designers have faced concerns the extent to which program guidelines should prescribe the use of certain promising practices. Furthermore, if such practices are prescribed, what is the best strategy for specifying them?

The six programs reviewed here reflect different positions on these issues.

- The Right to Read program was designed on the basis of the assumption that existing knowledge and practices, if used, can eliminate illiteracy. Program guidelines prescribe the specific elements to be included in any Right to Read project. In addition, technical assistance teams were established at four universities to help school personnel plan programs consistent with those guidelines.

- Title III (dissemination) has identified specific practices which are considered innovative and effective. This program includes efforts to stimulate other districts to use these practices. Essentially a soft-sell approach is followed: people known as facilitators identify schools with needs, provide district personnel with information on effective practices, and

provide funds to enable them to study those practices in operation. If school personnel decide they would like to try a particular practice, the developers of that practice are funded to provide training and help in adapting that practice to the school where it is to be implemented.

- The Drug Abuse Education and Civil Rights Training and Technical Assistance programs both are based on the assumption that knowledge is available to help school personnel resolve the kinds of problems that concern them. Both programs fund technical assistance centers to help school personnel plan programs appropriate for their situation which apply the knowledge already available.

- Teacher Corps, Dropout Prevention, and Title III (for innovative projects) guidelines do not prescribe specific practices; instead, they make the school districts funded responsible for planning what changes in practice will be made.

The Rand study offers some comparative evidence on the strategies employed by Right to Read and Title III (for innovative projects) respectively. Using the criteria of successful implementation, Rand found that school personnel had serious difficulties in following the Right to Read guidelines. Some teachers could not understand the program elements prescribed, had insufficient time and resources to plan their use, or simply objected to having specific program elements prescribed. In contrast, Title III allowed school personnel great freedom in both setting goals and selecting techniques and those schools did not seem to experience the implementation problems found in the Right to Read projects.[10]

Although no evaluation has been conducted to compare the more personalized approaches being used by Drug Abuse Education, Civil Rights Technical Assistance, and Title III (dissemination), these approaches seem to help school personnel to plan and make changes.

Strengthening General Capabilities of Local Districts

Another issue federal program designers must consider is the extent to which their programs should help school district personnel develop the capabilities needed to plan, initiate, and operate new programs. From one perspective, designers can argue that only schools which already have the necessary capabilities should be funded; from another perspective, the schools with the most problems seem to be those which lack a problem-solving capability. Designers holding the latter view argue that their programs should take into consideration both the substantive problem (e.g., drug abuse) and the problem of developing local capabilities.

All six programs are based on the assumption that school personnel do not have the capabilities needed to achieve the purposes of these programs. Therefore, all of these programs include some kind of outside technical assistance.

- The Dropout Prevention program encourages the personnel of funded schools to purchase whatever technical assistance they feel they need.
- The Teacher Corps program requires school personnel to develop their project in cooperation with university staff who will provide training on the full range of skills required for improving a school.
- The other four programs sponsored the development of specialized staffs to provide training and technical assistance to schools. For example, Right to Read funds 31 state departments to provide the leadership for efforts to improve the reading skills of students in their states and four university-based teams to provide technical assistance to schools. Drug Abuse Education funds five university centers to train and provide technical assistance to school and community teams which are planning programs to attack the drug problem. Civil Rights Technical Assistance funds state department technical assistance teams and 17 university centers to help school districts.

Title III (dissemination) funds state facilitators to help school personnel consider alternative practices and implement those which are suited to their needs.

Although all of these technical assistance staff justify their efforts in terms of helping the schools to achieve the purposes of a specific funding program, a closer examination of the way they work suggests that each, in some way, is also trying to strengthen the problem-solving, planning, and management capabilities of their client schools.

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

The foregoing review of six federal assistance programs designed to help schools solve problems and make improvements has resulted in the following findings.

- The directions and strategies of federal assistance programs are constantly changing and in only a few cases are there formal records of these changes and the reasons for them.
- Evaluation data regarding the relative effectiveness of different program strategies are limited.
- In spite of the limited evaluation data available on the six programs reviewed, some features of these federal assistance programs are worthy of note:
  - All four of the federal programs designed to help schools solve a problem encourage school district personnel to further define the problem in terms of their specific situation and in terms of any factors that appear to be contributing to the problem.
  - Most of the federal programs reviewed require school districts to involve students, teachers, administrators, parents, and community leaders in defining the problem as well as in identifying, selecting, and implementing appropriate solutions.
  - Most of the federal programs reviewed seem to be making provisions for training and technical assistance to help school personnel with important project tasks.
  - Unless they include specific dissemination efforts, the programs which fund development-demonstration projects do not appear to be helping any districts except those which have project sites.
  - In order to help school district personnel benefit from projects in other districts, several of these programs are using a personalized dissemination strategy. Such a strategy may involve specially designated people who provide local district staff with information about alternative practices, enable them to study and observe such practices, assist them in planning to use a specific practice, help them obtain training for their staff, and monitor implementation of the practice.

- Several of these federal programs seem to be stimulating change in school districts through a strategy of providing school districts with small grants and technical assistance.

- Finally, of the six programs reviewed, only Right to Read seemed to be a program of national scope. Some of the most noteworthy features of this program are: (1) it is designed to solve a problem which many people are concerned about; (2) it is organized in such a way that it enlists the efforts of national, state, and local agencies and groups; and (3) initially, information on effective practices was collected which provides a useful starting point for school personnel.

These findings illustrate the kinds of U.S.O.E. experience which can be drawn upon by LEAA in designing a program to reduce school violence and disruption. The major implication of this review, therefore, is that any national program to reduce school violence and disruption should incorporate the features suggested by the findings of this review.

The second important implication of these findings is that federal assistance programs need adequate resources for program management and program evaluation. We strongly recommend that LEAA establish firm program direction and secure well qualified evaluation assistance before launching a program to assist schools.

CHAPTER 6

THE RECCOMMENDED PROGRAM

THE RECOMMENDED PROGRAM

All of the project activities discussed in this report were undertaken to provide the basis for recommending an assistance program which LEAA could implement in a national effort to reduce school violence and disruption. All of the information collected was organized in terms of the following questions:

- What is the nature and extent of the problem of violence and disruption in schools?
- What efforts are currently underway to solve the problem?
- What kinds of help do schools need in order to cope with the problem?
- What can we learn from past federal assistance to the schools?

Information gathered to answer each of these questions was reported in detail in Chapters 2 through 5 of this report. In this chapter we will propose a federal assistance program which is based on the findings of this study. This chapter is organized into six sections: the goal of the proposed program; the strategy for the program recommended; a discussion of program components; implementation considerations; cost considerations; and conclusions.

GOAL OF THE PROGRAM

The goal we suggest for the program recommended here is to reduce the level of violence and disruption occurring in schools. In general, project staff find that there is broad support for a federal assistance program directed towards such a goal. In exploring the definition of the term "violence," however, two rather different perspectives on the nature of the problem were identified. One perspective is reflected in our finding that educators prefer a broad definition of the problem--a definition which includes not only discrete incidents of violence but any behavior by individuals or groups which disrupts the educational process. The other perspective is reflected in the finding that some federal planners, educational researchers, and developers feel that the proposed program, to be effective, has to be narrowly focused on certain types of violent criminal acts.

There are advantages in both of these perspectives. A restricted definition would certainly make it easier to decide which schools should be given assistance and to determine whether or not the program goal was being achieved. On the other hand, a broad definition seems to reflect more accurately the problem educators with the greatest needs are facing--they are more concerned about their schools being trapped in a web of violence and disruption which is destroying their effectiveness as institutions of learning than with individual random acts of violence which they feel can never be fully controlled or prevented.

To see how other federal programs handle these two views, we examined four programs with a program goal of solving or, at least, ameliorating a problem: Drug Abuse Education, Right to Read, Civil Rights Training and Technical Assistance, and Dropout Prevention. The definitions of these four programs acknowledge both perspectives. First, they require all schools applying for assistance to define the problem as they are experiencing it, to analyze factors contributing to the problem, to supply evidence supporting their definition and analysis, and to propose criteria to be used in evaluating their success in solving the problem. Second, these programs all have set criteria for evaluating applications--criteria which are used to judge the quality of the applications as well as the level of need and the completeness of the criteria school personnel propose to use to evaluate their success.

Based on this analysis, we recommend that the proposed program adopt this goal: to reduce the level of violence and disruption occurring in schools. We also recommend that the burden of problem definition be assigned to the schools applying for assistance. We feel that such an approach will make the program more relevant to schools and will result in applications which reflect local situations more honestly. It should be noted that this approach does not interfere with the national program staff's responsibilities for setting program criteria for determining a school's need for assistance or for judging program success. In fact, we believe both of these tasks should be undertaken as part of effective program management.

STRATEGY FOR THE PROGRAM

The federal government generally uses three basic strategies to assist people in the educational field to solve problems:

1. The provision of funds to help schools solve problems by expanding certain services. This strategy is based on the assumptions that educators know what to do and that what they need are additional resources.

2. Funding the development of a variety of technical services which help schools solve problems by applying knowledge and practices with which they are unfamiliar. This strategy is based on the assumptions that some educators are more knowledgeable and are using more effective practices than others, and that what they need are services to help schools in difficulty implement more effective practices.

3. Funding research, development, and demonstration projects which result in the new knowledge and practices needed to solve a problem. This strategy is based on the assumptions that effective practices do not exist and, therefore, efforts to develop such practices are needed.

Five major findings from this study suggest that to cope with the problem of school violence, technical assistance, complemented by some form of direct funding, would be the most appropriate strategy. Specifically, these findings were:

1. The problem of violence varies in both nature and magnitude from school to school and from time to time.

2. Due to the uniqueness of the nature of the problem in specific schools, proposed solutions must be adapted to each school.

3. An array of practices and programs have been identified which appear to be reducing the level of violence in specific schools.

4. Few educators believe that they have the knowledge and skills required to cope with the problem of school violence.

5. When asked what kind of assistance they need, most educators request some type of technical assistance and funds to support their plans to adapt and implement effective practices. Some educators also request funds to cover the operating costs of new practices. Few request research and development.

In considering alternative ways of implementing a technical assistance strategy, we examined a small number of federal programs which fundamentally follow such a strategy: Drug Abuse Education, Title III Dissemination, Civil Rights Training and Technical Assistance, Right to Read, and Teacher Corps. Given the limited resources of LEAA, we noted that certain features of these programs appear to have considerable relevance for the design of a program to reduce school violence:

- The experience of Drug Abuse Education suggests that a small grant can stimulate school and community action on a problem.
- The experience of Drug Abuse Education, Civil Rights Training and Technical Assistance, Title III Dissemination, and Right to Read suggests that knowledgeable and skilled people can be identified and supported to offer technical assistance, and that schools will use the services of such people.
- The experience of Title III Dissemination suggests that small amounts of money together with the appropriate types of technical assistance can help school personnel to use new practices.
- The experience of Title III Dissemination and Right to Read suggests that adequate and appropriate national direction can stimulate state and local educational agencies to work on a problem.
- Discussions with federal staff associated with the five programs mentioned above resulted in our conclusion that these programs generally did not have sufficient resources for continuing evaluation to provide the information needed to insure a quality program and to suggest ways in which program quality could be improved.

With these features in mind, we would recommend that the proposed program to reduce school violence use a technical assistance strategy with, at minimum, the following features:

- Small grants to individual schools, school districts, or community agencies to stimulate the adaption of effective practices for use in specific schools.
- The establishment of regional staffs, expert in problem-solving procedures and knowledgeable about effective practices to reduce school violence, who will offer technical assistance to schools in difficulty.
- The development of national program direction which, at minimum, supports the identification of effective practices and insures the quality of the technical assistance offered to school personnel and the evaluation of the effectiveness and efficiency of the entire program.

COMPONENTS OF THE PROGRAM

Three features recommended for a minimum federal assistance program to reduce school violence and disruption suggest three components for the proposed program.

- The first component--the Local Action Team or LAT--is a group of people associated with a school or schools who apply for a small grant and use the money to analyze their problem, and select, adapt, and implement a proposed solution.

- The second component--the Regional Center or RC--is a center with a knowledgeable and skilled staff who provide technical assistance to schools. Ideally, these Regional Centers will be located in institutions accessible to schools and already involved in helping schools to solve problems.

- The third component--the National Program Agency or NPA--provides overall direction and support to the program.

A fully operational national program is illustrated in Figure 1 which shows schools which have established Local Action Teams and received small grants to help them work on the problem of school violence and disruption. Each Local Action Team is associated with a Regional Center which provides information about alternative practices, training, assistance in problem analysis, access to people with experience in implementing certain practices, and help in initiating a selected practice. Supporting the network of Local Action Teams and Regional Centers is the National Program Agency which provides overall program direction, identifies effective practices and experienced practitioners, disseminates information about those practices, prepares training and resource materials for the Regional Centers, monitors the work of the Centers, and evaluates the overall program.

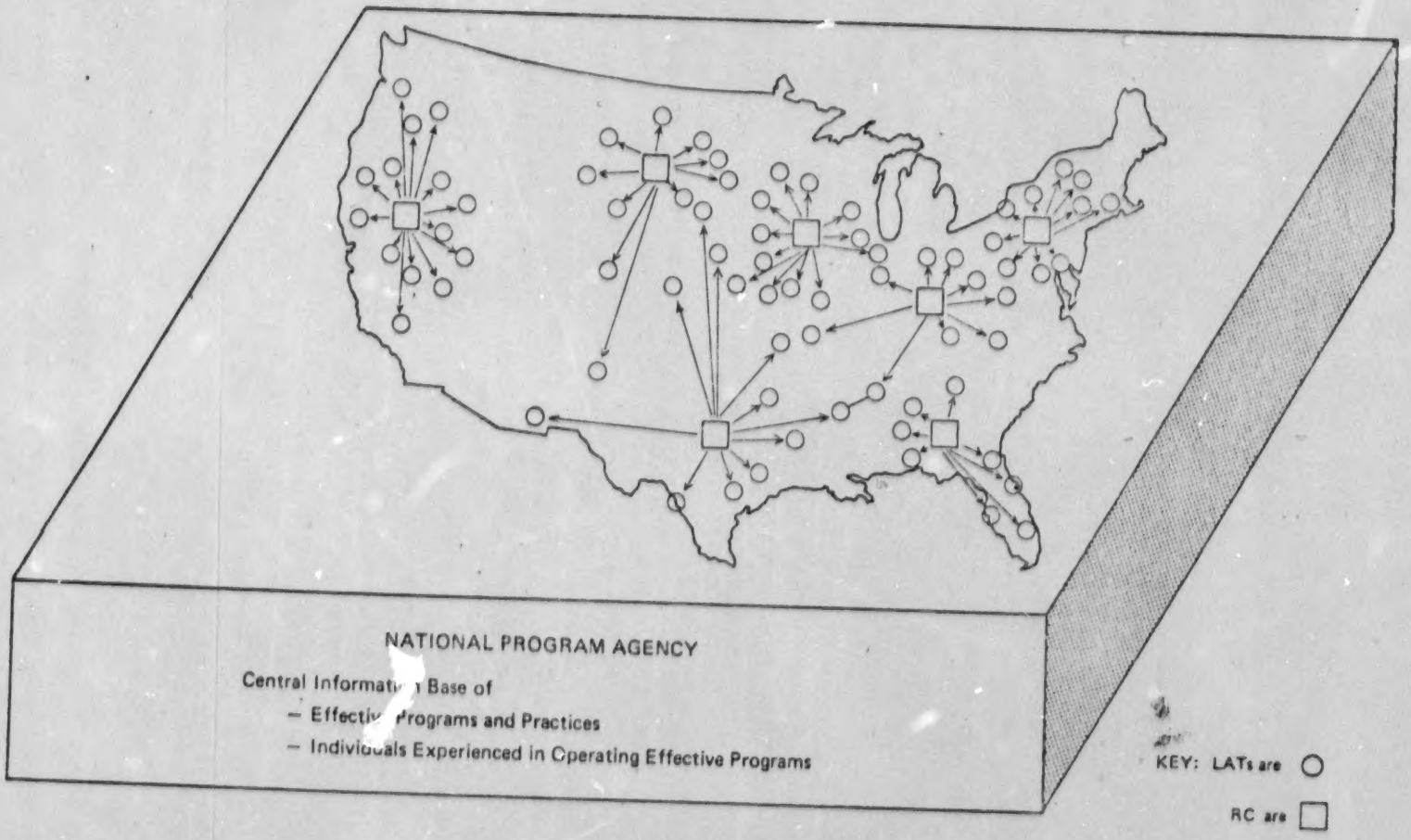
NATIONAL PROGRAM AGENCY
Central Information Base of
– Effective Programs and Practices
– Individuals Experienced in Operating Effective Programs
KEY: LATs are
RC are

Figure 1. A Schematic Representation of a Fully Operational Program

In this section, we will examine each of these components more closely in terms of their respective purposes, functions, staffing, possible locations, and operating costs. This section concludes with a brief review of the ways in which the various components relate to each other.

Local Action Teams

Local Action Teams serve as catalysts for local school improvement efforts. Their purpose is to develop and implement a program to reduce school violence and disruption. Their basic function is to mobilize all of the available resources in a particular school community in order to develop an effective program. The three basic functions of the Teams are:

- Planning local programs to reduce school violence. In carrying out this function, Teams will:
  - Define the specific pattern of violence and disruption in the local school situation;
  - Analyze alternative means of attacking the problem; and
  - Specify a course of action suitable for their schools.
- Implementing their action plans. In performing this function, Teams will:
  - Involve the school staff, students, and members of the community surrounding the school in the program;
  - Adapt appropriate practices to their situation; and
  - Acquire the resources needed to implement their action plans.
- Evaluating their local efforts and participating in evaluation activities sponsored by the National Program Agency.

A Local Action Team might serve one school, several schools, or an entire small school district depending on the nature of the problem and

the schools affected. It is important that a Team serve an area in which Team members feel their program can have an impact.

A Team is composed of seven to ten people from the school community who have a common interest in reducing the problem of school violence and disruption. Team members could include teachers, students, administrators, parents, social service administrators, school board members, and law enforcement officers or security directors. Each Team needs a leader to coordinate activities and to serve as a contact person with the Regional Center that supports their efforts.

In view of the experience of other federal assistance programs, a small grant of no more than $15,000* plus technical assistance worth up to $5,000 should be sufficient to support a Local Action Team.

Regional Centers

The purpose of the Regional Centers is to provide technical support to local schools in planning and implementing effective programs. The three basic functions of a Regional Center are:

- Providing training and technical assistance to Local Action Teams. In carrying out this function, Regional Centers will:
  - Assist school personnel to conceptualize their problems;

*Staff salaries would not be covered by these grants. Some of these funds might be used, however, to cover release time for some key staff members. Most Team members would either volunteer to participate or undertake Team activities as part of their regular job responsibilities. Generally, grant monies would be used to support costs associated with involving people, planning, and implementing selected practices over a period of time ranging from one to three years.

  - Provide a regional resource bank of information on effective programs, practices, and consultants;
  - Help school personnel use the information to design or adapt effective programs for use in their schools;
  - Provide a central facility which Local Action Teams can use for problem-solving activities;
  - Conduct training programs to strengthen the knowledge and skills of Local Action Teams; and
  - Provide direct assistance to Local Action Teams in the actual implementation of school programs.

- Monitoring and evaluating the work of the LATs in order to determine how the services of the Regional Center can be strengthened.
- Managing and coordinating the activities of Local Action Teams so that they benefit from each others work.

The experience of similar operations suggests that a staff of five to seven professionals would be required to provide general information services to an entire region and effective technical assistance to approximately 100 LATs. It is estimated that at least four to five staff members would be needed to provide training and technical assistance to the Local Action Teams, while one or two of the staff would be needed to manage the Regional Center, coordinate the work of the LATs, and operate the information service. In support of its technical assistance services, a Regional Center would also be able to draw upon a pool of persons who have operated particular types of programs effectively.

Regional Centers would be located in institutions which have established working relationships with local schools and have demonstrated their capacity to help school personnel solve problems. Based on U.S.O.E.

experience, some of the kinds of institutions which might house the Regional Centers are: state departments of education, intermediate units within state education systems, educational associations, central offices of large school districts, universities, and certain law enforcement agencies.

The experience of other federal assistance programs suggests that the full cost of each professional staff person in a technical assistance center ranges between $35,000 and $55,000, depending on the benefits provided and whatever secretarial support, travel, materials, and overhead costs are required. Thus, one Regional Center employing seven professionals could cost between $245,000 and $385,000 per year.

National Program Agency

This agency has leadership responsibilities for the national program to reduce school violence and disruption. It designs, implements, and manages the operation of the program. LEAA should house the National Program Agency.

To fulfill the responsibilities outlined above, the basic functions of the National Program Agency are:

- Providing program direction and management for the overall program. In carrying out this function, the Agency
  - Establishes a policy direction for the program and defines procedures to be followed in establishing and operating the program; and
  - Funds the establishment and operation of the Regional Centers, Local Action Teams, and any work required by the National Program Agency.

- Developing a national bank of information on effective practices to reduce school violence and disruption as well as experienced practitioners. In order to do this, the Agency

  - Identifies effective practices for reducing school violence and disruption;

  - Validates the effectiveness of those practices;

  - Establishes a central bank of information on effective programs;

  - Disseminates information on effective programs to the Regional Centers, members of the educational community, and members of the public at large; and

  - Identifies people across the country who are knowledgeable about the problem of school violence and disruption, skilled in developing solutions for the problem, and willing to help the Local Action Teams.

- Supporting Regional Center training and technical assistance functions by providing training materials and procedures as well as resource materials to help Regional Center staff establish and maintain effective services for LATs working on the problem of school violence and disruption.

- Evaluating the overall operation and effectiveness of the program. Such evaluation should include:

  - Assessment of the effects of specific practices implemented by the LATs;

  - Assessment of the processes used by LATs to define their problems and to plan and implement selected practices;

  - Assessment of the training, technical assistance, and information services provided by the Regional Centers; and

  - Assessment of the National Program Agency's support activities--particularly the national information services and technical assistance to Regional Center staffs.

The National Program Agency is seen as a unit within the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. A core staff of five to ten professionals

would be required to provide effective leadership for the recommended national effort. The actual size of the NPA staff will depend on the number of Regional Centers and Local Action Teams established. At least one staff member should have the skills needed to manage a complex national program. At least two staff members should be knowledgeable about training and technical assistance. One staff member should have experience in program evaluation. The other staff members should have the management skills required for the selection, funding, and monitoring of Regional Centers and Local Action Teams. The experience of other federal programs suggests that LEAA staff will need to contract with other organizations in order to fully carry out the activities associated with developing an information base, training and monitoring Regional Center staffs, and evaluating the effectiveness of the overall program.

To assist the National Program Agency in establishing a program direction for the national effort, LEAA should consider forming an Advisory Board. Such a Board could include representatives from national law enforcement groups, educational associations, federal agencies with related interests (e.g., the Office of Education, National Institute of Education, National Institute of Mental Health, and National Institute of Drug Abuse), and various community groups.

Considering the experience of other federal assistance programs, the following costs may be incurred by the National Program Agency during the first year of operation:

- $250,000 to $500,000 for the salaries and expenses of this unit within LEAA;

- $200,000 to $400,000 for identifying effective practices and disseminating information about those practices to schools;

- $150,000 to $250,000 for designing training and resource materials for Regional Center staffs and for the provision of technical assistance as Center operations are initiated;

- $250,000 to $400,000 for evaluation of the program: this evaluation will focus on the effectiveness of the Regional Centers and Local Action Teams and include documentation of the practices and processes they use.

Relationship of the Functions of Program Components

To summarize the foregoing description of the three program components, Figure 2 has been prepared. It lists the major functions to be performed in the proposed program and shows the role of each component in relation to those functions. The functions of the proposed program are organized under six headings:

Program Initiation and Management. As illustrated in Figure 2, the National Program Agency plays a critical role in initiating the program. It develops policies, disseminates program information, reviews proposals, and makes funding decisions. When the Regional Centers have been funded, they provide information to school district personnel which will help them decide whether or not to develop a proposal. All three components have regular management responsibilities. As the number of Centers and LATs increases, the number of coordinating tasks to be performed by the National Program Agency and the Regional Centers also increases.

Functions/Activities	National Program Agency	Regional Center	Local Action Team
1. Program Initiation and Management	1.1 Develop program policies and procedures 1.2 Disseminate program information 1.3 Review Regional Center proposals and fund selected proposals 1.4 Review and fund Local Action Team proposals 1.5 Manage the work of the National Program Agency 1.6 Coordinate work of Regional Centers to insure they benefit from each others efforts	(Interested agencies apply to be funded as Regional Centers) 1.4 Provide school districts information about proposal process 1.5 Manage work of Regional Center 1.6 Coordinate work of various LATs to insure they benefit from each others efforts	(School Districts prepare proposals for LAT) 1.5 Manage work of LAT
2. Development of Information Base	2.1 Identify and evaluate effective practices 2.2 Design and maintain an information system on effective practices 2.3 Actively disseminate information through Regional Centers, educational associations, and mass media	2.1 Provide NPA information regarding effective practices in region 2.2 Use national information system to help schools 2.3 Disseminate information to local schools	2.2 Use national information system in process of preparing plans 2.3 Disseminate information across the school district
3. Training for Regional Center Staffs and Local Action Teams	3.1 Design and provide training for new Regional Center staff 3.2 Provide training--problem solving sessions to help maintain quality of Regional Center services 3.3 Develop resource materials for Regional Centers to use with LATs	3.1 Participate in training; design training for LATs 3.2 Help plan problem solving sessions based on Regional Center needs 3.3 Adapt materials for use with specific LATs 3.4 Provide training and problem solving sessions for LATs	3.4 Participate in training; define nature of problem, develop an action plan
4. Implementation of LAT Plans			4.1 Involve school staff, students, parents, community leaders, law enforcement agencies 4.2 Implement action plan
5. Technical Assistance for Regional Centers and Local Action Teams	5.1 Identify and maintain a file of people who have experience with problem and could provide technical assistance to Regional Centers and LATs 5.2 Help Regional Centers solve problems they encounter	5.1 Use persons identified in support of LAT planning and implementation efforts 5.2 Provide technical assistance to schools as needed	5.2 Use technical assistance, as necessary, from Regional Centers to help solve problems encountered in implementation
6. Program Evaluation	6.1 Evaluate performance of Regional Centers both for purposes of program improvement and for future funding decisions 6.2 Evaluate performance of Local Action Teams both for purposes of program improvement and for determining effectiveness of the program	6.2 As part of technical assistance, monitor performance of LATs in order to identify where and when they need assistance	6.2 Document activities and their effects

Figure 2. Relationship of the Functions and Activities of the Three Components of the Recommended Program to Reduce School Violence and Disruption

Development of Information Base. The National Program Agency has the responsibility of identifying and evaluating potentially effective practices for reducing school violence and disseminating information on such programs and practices to the Regional Centers and the LATs, as well as to educators and community leaders in general. The Regional Centers and LATs are primarily users of this information, although they are also potential sources of information about effective practices.

Training for Regional Center Staffs and Local Action Teams. The National Program Agency plays the leadership role in helping the Regional Center staffs develop their capability to assist LATs and, in turn, the Regional Centers play the leadership role in helping the LATs define their problems and develop action plans to solve those problems.

Implementation of LAT Plans. This function is the responsibility of the LAT. The ultimate effectiveness of the recommended program will depend upon how well the various LATs implement their action plans.

Technical Assistance for Regional Centers and Local Action Teams. The National Program Agency is responsible for compiling a file of resource people for the Regional Centers and LATs. The National Agency is also responsible for helping Regional Centers solve problems they encounter; in turn, the Regional Centers have the responsibility of providing technical assistance to help the LATs solve problems they encounter while implementing their action plans.

Program Evaluation. The National Program Agency has the major responsibility for designing and conducting evaluations which will be used to

determine both the effectiveness of the recommended program and ways in which it can be improved. The Regional Centers monitor the performance of the LATs to determine where and when they need assistance. The LATs play basically a supporting role by documenting what they do and the effects of their activities.

IMPLEMENTATION CONSIDERATIONS

The purpose of this section is to trace the main implementation activities required to set up the recommended program. Although many variations are possible in implementing the recommended program (e.g., number of Regional Centers, number of LATs, number of years provided to set up the program), the program design requires three components--the National Program Agency, Regional Centers, and Local Action Teams.

Figure 3 on the following page charts the main activities required to implement the three program components. The direction of each connecting arrow suggests an activity in one component which provides direct guidance and support for an activity in another component. For example, the National Program Agency, the Advisory Board, and program policies and procedures must all be established before a program announcement can be issued on the initiation of the Regional Centers. Certain activities must be performed within one component before certain activities within another component can be effectively initiated. The remaining pages of this section discuss the sequencing of and relationships among the main implementation activities.

National Program Agency

An organizational unit within LEAA should be established (1.1 in Figure 3) to serve as the NPA. Initial NPA tasks are to form an Advisory Board (1.2) and to develop policies and procedures to govern the operation of the program (1.3). Once these tasks have been accomplished, announcements can be distributed about requirements for the establishment of Regional Centers (2.1) and LATs (3.1).

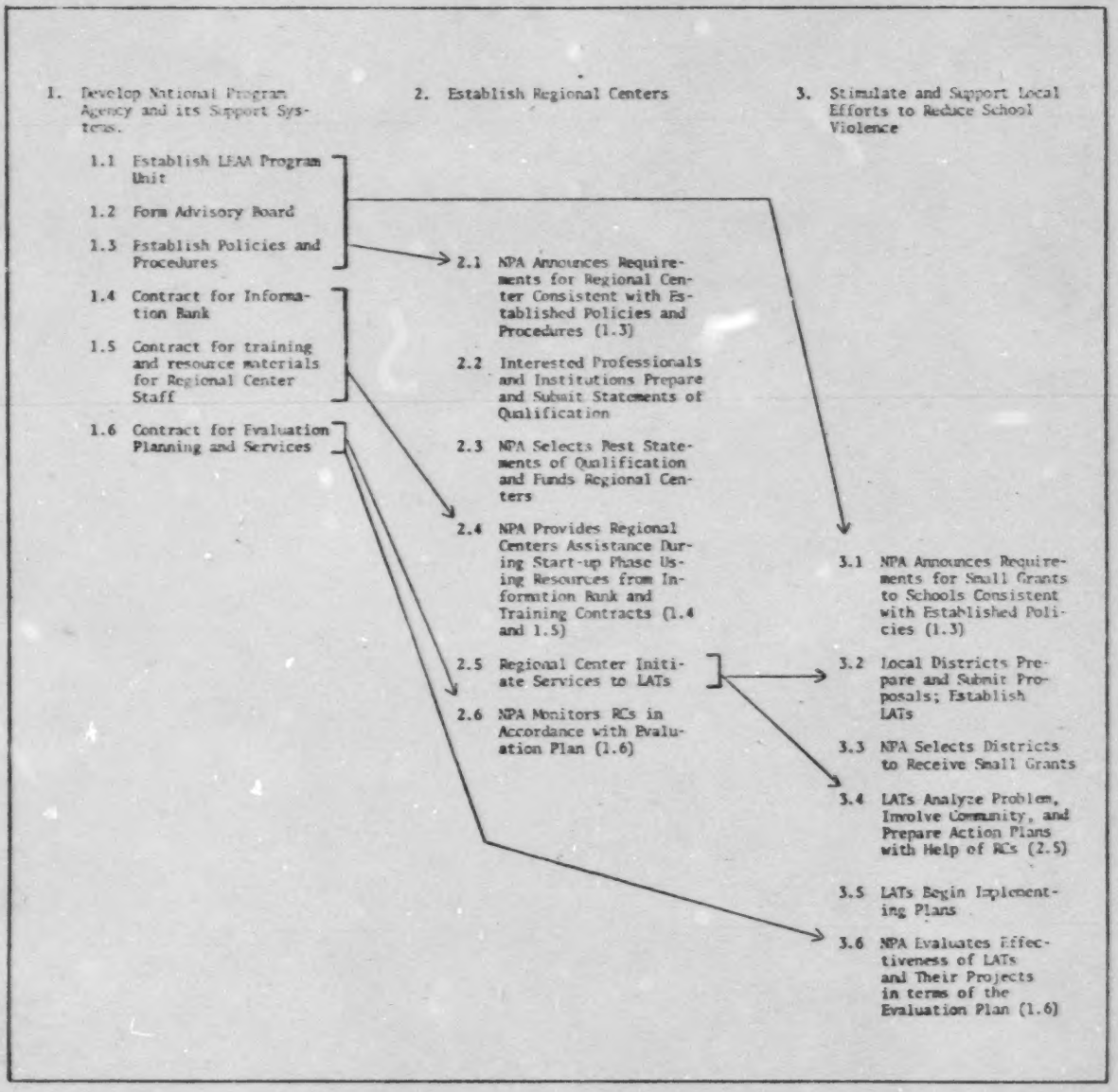
1. Develop National Program Agency and its Support Systems.
1.1 Establish LEAA Program Unit
1.2 Form Advisory Board
1.3 Establish Policies and Procedures
1.4 Contract for Information Bank
1.5 Contract for training and resource materials for Regional Center Staff
1.6 Contract for Evaluation Planning and Services
2. Establish Regional Centers
2.1 NPA Announces Requirements for Regional Center Consistent with Established Policies and Procedures (1.3)
2.2 Interested Professionals and Institutions Prepare and Submit Statements of Qualification
2.3 NPA Selects Best Statements of Qualification and Funds Regional Centers
2.4 NPA Provides Regional Centers Assistance During Start-up Phase Using Resources from Information Bank and Training Contracts (1.4 and 1.5)
2.5 Regional Center Initiate Services to LATs
2.6 NPA Monitors RCs in Accordance with Evaluation Plan (1.6)
3. Stimulate and Support Local Efforts to Reduce School Violence
3.1 NPA Announces Requirements for Small Grants to Schools Consistent with Established Policies (1.3)
3.2 Local Districts Prepare and Submit Proposals; Establish LATs
3.3 NPA Selects Districts to Receive Small Grants
3.4 LATs Analyze Problem, Involve Community, and Prepare Action Plans with Help of RCs (2.5)
3.5 LATs Begin Implementing Plans
3.6 NPA Evaluates Effectiveness of LATs and Their Projects in terms of the Evaluation Plan (1.6)

Figure 3. Dependency Relationships for Implementation Considerations

For the recommended program to have the best chance for success, it is suggested that an extensive and aggressive communication strategy be initiated to provide members of all relevant groups within the educational community with information on the program and stimulate their interest and involvement. Figure 4 outlines a communication strategy designed to provide information about the program to all appropriate groups, particularly local schools. Various educational and other interested state agencies and groups within the state are specified as well as the types of communications that might be used to reach key people within the various groups listed.

Level	Agencies to be Reached	Type of Communication		
		Mailings	Publications	Personal Contact (Telephone or Face-to-Face)
State	State Education Staff	Direct from LEAA	Chief State School Officers Journal Education Commission of the States Journal	Chief State School Officers Executives State Legislators
	State Law Enforcement Staff	Through LEAA Regular Channels		
	State Professional Associations	Through National Associations	National Association Journals/Newsletters	National Association Staff
Within State	Intermediate Educational Service Staff	Through State Personnel	National Association Journals State Publications	State Educational Staff Educational Laboratory Staff
	Educational Laboratory Staff	Direct from LEAA	Education Daily AERA Journal CPDaR Newsletter	
	University Professors		AERA Journal Association Journals NOLPE Publications	
	Local Professional Associations	Through National or State Associations (NEA, AFT, NSBA, AASA, etc.)	National Association Journals	National Association Staff
	Local School Boards	Through National School Boards	NSBA Journal National Magazines	NSBA National Staff Regional Center Staff
	School District Central Office Staff	Direct from LEAA	AASA Notes	State Educational Staff Regional Center Staff
	School Building Staff	Through Central Office	NASSP/NAESP Magazines	Central Office Staff Regional Center Staff
	Local Law Enforcement Officers	Through LEAA Regular Channels		
	Community Leaders		National Magazines PTA or National Citizens for Education Reports Local Newspapers	National Citizens for Education or National PTA Staff

Figure 4. Communication Strategy for Recommended Program

In addition to the communication strategy outlined in Figure 4, the National Program Agency will need to develop a structure for processing statements of qualifications from Regional Centers and proposals from Local Action Teams. Figure 5 outlines a suggested structure. Major kinds of agencies within various levels of the educational system are listed. The activities each agency might undertake (i.e., preparing statements of qualifications or reviewing proposals) on Regional Center or Local Action Team proposals are also noted.

Level	Agencies	Regional Center Proposals		Local Action Team Proposals	
		Preparing Proposals	Reviewing Proposals	Preparing Proposals	Reviewing Proposals
Inter-State	Regional (Multi-State) Educational		•		
	Regional (Multi-State) Law Enforcement		•		
State	State Educational	•	•		•
	State Law Enforcement	•	•		•
Within State	Intermediate Educational Service Units	•			•
	Educational Laboratories	•			
	Universities	•			
	Large Metropolitan School Districts	•	•	•	•
	Other School Districts		•	•	•
	School Buildings			•	

Figure 5. Proposal Preparation and Review Procedures

The remaining start-up activities for the National Program Agency consist of contracting for three kinds of services to support the Regional Centers and IATs. These services are: developing a national bank of information on effective practices to reduce school violence and disruption as well as information on experienced practitioners (1.4), developing resource and training materials for the staff of the Regional Centers (1.5), and planning and conducting a comprehensive program evaluation (1.6).

Regional Centers

In addition to any general dissemination of information about the program or a general program announcement, it is recommended that a specific announcement on LEAA's intention to fund Regional Centers be prepared and distributed to certain audiences (2.1). This announcement should provide detailed information on the program, the number of Centers to be funded (initially and over the long term), and any restrictions on the use of funds. Staff from interested organizations would be asked to discuss their qualifications to serve as a Regional Center with National Program Agency staff before they prepare and submit a statement of qualifications. A Regional Center statement of qualifications (2.2) should provide detailed information relating the capab.'ities of the institution to the policies and guidelines that have been prepared for Regional Center operation and present an implementation plan describing how the institution proposes to start up and phase in the required activities and procedures.

A three-year funding period is recommended for Regional Centers (2.3) to provide sufficient time to develop and deliver effective services. Suggested criteria for evaluating Regional Center proposals are:

- Degree of rapport with the educational community;
- Ability to serve an entire region;
- Level of commitment by the institution that would house the Regional Center to maintain a low-overhead, service organization; and
- Ability to perform specified Regional Center functions.

The initial task for an institution selected to serve as a Regional Center is to prepare itself to provide technical assistance to schools (2.4) by hiring additional staff, developing materials, initiating contacts in the field, establishing contact with other Regional Centers, and participating in the training of Regional Center staff by the National Program Agency.

The role of the Regional Center in providing assistance to Local Action Teams (2.5) begins with the preliminary discussion of proposals and plans with potential Teams. After the Teams have been funded, problem-solving sessions are conducted at the Regional Center to help members of the various Teams formulate more detailed action plans. After each LAT program is initiated, the Regional Center supports the Team by providing new information, critiques of their action plan as it changes and develops, and actual on-site assistance from individuals who have been identified as highly experienced in operating programs of the type being implemented.

The Regional Center also participates in program evaluation activities (2.6). The evaluation should be designed to allow for continuous improvement based on the experiences and outcomes of Regional Center and LAT activities.

Local Action Teams

The implementation sequence begins with the announcement of LAT planning grants (3.1). This announcement serves as formal notification that small grants are available for schools or groups of schools to use in developing projects to reduce school violence and disruption. The program announcement should state that direct funding of schools (or Local Action Teams) is intended to assure a realistic impact on the problem with minimum funds. Funds should be provided to school communities which can demonstrate a serious need and a reasonable plan of action. Funding decisions should be made quickly and at frequent intervals throughout the year, so that school personnel who are motivated to take action do not have to wait through a lengthy review process. It is essential, however, for state departments of education to review and critique any proposals submitted by schools in their state.

Schools are advised that the funds can be used to plan the implementation of a program or to actually implement a program. In either case, the formation of a Local Action Team is required. Grant funds could be used to cover expenses associated with LAT travel, per diem, release time for training activities, equipment, or materials. A portion of funds might be used to cover staff time for local coordination of the project.

The program announcement directs interested school personnel to contact the appropriate Regional Center for more information. Center staff members answer specific questions regarding the grant requirements and outline the primary criteria to be used in evaluating proposals. One outcome of these discussions might be a decision on the part of school personnel to prepare a proposal for funding. Another outcome might be a decision by school personnel to postpone submitting a proposal. School personnel should have the option of initiating renewed discussions with Center staff at any time.

The proposal form is a relatively simple document which does not require extensive proposal-writing skills. A proposal should indicate the need for a program and the level of commitment in the school as well as describe the kinds of activities to be conducted (e.g., planning, designing, developing, implementing, or even adapting an existing program). Funding decisions are made by the National Program Agency, but copies of the proposal should be submitted to the appropriate state agencies as well as to the Regional Center for review and comment (3.2). Suggested criteria for evaluating Local Action Team proposals are:

- Demonstrated need for a program to solve local problems of school violence and disruption;
- Level of commitment on the part of school personnel to solve the problem;
- Willingness to form a Local Action Team representing various groups within the community; and
- Capability to administer a grant and to be clearly accountable for expenditures.

Notification of a funding decision (3.3) is sent to the LAT, to the appropriate Regional Center, and to the state department that reviewed the proposal. Funding decisions are made on a continuing basis until the funds for a given period are exhausted or until the Regional Center service load is full. Proposals from applicants with acceptable proposals that could not be funded should be held in a priority file until the next funding period. The time interval from the submission of a proposal to notification of funding should be as short as possible.

The initial use of planning grant funds is to provide an opportunity for the members of an LAT to travel to the Regional Center for problem-solving sessions with the Center staff (3.4). The Regional Centers may conduct problem-solving sessions for several Teams simultaneously. Such sessions can provide a forum where the skills and expertise of Team members from several schools can be shared.

Activities at the Center include a series of exercises which will help Team members to further define the problem of violence and disruption in their school, review alternative approaches for attacking the problem, and develop an action plan for their school. Different kinds of plans may be developed by the various Teams participating in the problem-solving sessions at the Center. Some Teams might actually develop a program to combat school violence, while others might receive training to help them implement specific programs; still other Teams may define their problem situation more carefully or reconsider their action plans. Most Teams will develop plans which will involve additional members of the school community.

When they return home, Team members will initiate the plan they developed at the Regional Center (3.5). The Teams will receive Regional Center assistance on a continuing basis.

When project activities have been completed and planning grant funds have been exhausted, school personnel need to decide whether they should implement the plan developed or continue the program implemented under their planning grant.

LATs will be expected to cooperate in program evaluation activities (3.6) designed to examine the effectiveness of the program and provide information which can be used to strengthen the program.

* * *

The foregoing discussion has highlighted how the plan for implementation of the recommended program must take into account the following interrelationships among the three program components:

> Before the Local Action Teams can be funded, Regional Centers must be established, their staffs must be trained, and they should have the training and resource materials needed to supply technical services to the LATs.
>
> Before the Regional Centers can be established, the National Program Agency must develop a bank of information on effective practices, prepare training and resource materials for Regional Center staff and, if possible, begin planning the program evaluation.

Although the implementation sequence outlined above must be maintained, it does allow considerable flexibility in establishing the proposed program. Specifically, the activities outlined in Figure 3 could be initiated during a single fiscal year or over a period of several years. In addition, the

program could be initiated as a full-scale effort with 10 or more Regional Centers established simultaneously or the Regional Centers could be phased in over time.

COST CONSIDERATIONS

In this section, our purpose is to review some cost implications of the proposed program. This discussion will focus on the problem of how to estimate a "ballpark" figure for the program, based on the foregoing descriptions of the program components and the costs associated with those components. The intricacies of start-up costs and phasing costs for the various components are not covered. Such complexities should be considered when the decision has been made to proceed with the proposed program.

As a point of departure for this discussion, we might summarize the functions and costs associated with each component:

- Each Local Action Team receives a small grant of up to $15,000 which can be used to analyze the problem in their school, consider alternative solutions, select and implement a particular solution. In addition, $5,000 is reserved for each LAT to cover the costs of people providing technical assistance in adapting and implementing specific practices.

- Each Regional Center trains and supports the LATs as they work to solve their problems. A Regional Center employing seven professionals could cost between $245,000 and $385,000 per year, depending on the costs of salary benefits, secretarial support, travel, materials, and overhead.

- The National Program Agency purchases:

  - The development of training and resource materials to help Regional Center staff establish their centers and provide useful services to LATs. These activities are estimated at $150,000 to $250,000 a year while the Regional Centers are being established.

  - Information services which include identifying effective practices, validating their effectiveness, preparing descriptions, and responding to requests for information. These services are estimated at $200,000 to $400,000 a year.

  - Evaluation services to provide information on the effectiveness and cost of Regional Center services and

LAT programs. These services are estimated at $250,000 to $400,000 per year, depending on the size of the national program and the complexity and depth of the evaluation design.

- The National Program Agency manages the national program, processes LAT grants and Regional Center contracts, and monitors the activities of the service contractors, the Regional Centers, and the LATs. Depending on the number of Regional Centers and LATs funded, the National Program Agency needs a staff of five to ten people. Staff costs are estimated at $250,000 to $500,000 a year, assuming the salary and expenses of each professional cost approximately $50,000.

In order to determine a ballpark figure for annual operating costs, we need the foregoing figures. Now, for the purposes of illustration, assume that 500 LATs are served each year. Further, assume that the national program is well established and is operating at maximum efficiency. These assumptions enable us to make the following statements about the status of the various program components.

- The Regional Centers are operating efficiently; each Center is able to train and support approximately 100 LATs.
- Regional Center staff are performing well; there is little turnover, and thus little need for staff training or support.
- The information services have been established. A large number of effective practices has been identified and the task of responding to requests has been routinized.
- To date, program evaluation has focused on process variables. Data are needed on the effectiveness of the program.
- Currently, seven staff members are working in the office of the National Program Agency.

Using the estimated costs associated with the three program components, the goal of 500 LATs, and our assumption that the program is operating efficiently, the following cost estimates can be projected:

Cost of 500 LATs			$10,000,000
500 small grants @ $15,000	=	$7,500,000	
500 technical assistance accounts @ $5,000	=	$2,500,000	
Cost of 5 Regional Centers @ $315,000			$1,575,000
Cost of National Program Agency			$950,000
• Training and resource material for Regional Center staffs	-	0	
• Maintenance of the information services	-	$200,000	
• Strengthening the program evaluation to gather effectiveness data	-	$400,000	
• NPA salary and expenses	-	$350,000	

Of course, these figures would be very different if other assumptions were made about the size and scope of the program. For example, the cost of the program would be quite different if 300 LATs or 800 LATs were functioning in any given year. However, the level of effort for any program should be reviewed to determine its adequacy. The criterion of program adequacy can be considered in terms of these four questions:

- Is the program able to respond adequately to requests for information about effective practices?
- Is a sufficient number of LATs being supported, considering the number of schools that need help?
- Is an adequate portion of total program expenditures going directly to the LATs?
- Do educational and community leaders perceive the federal program as adequate in terms of their views of the problem?

CONCLUSION

This chapter describes a recommended federal assistance program to help educators reduce the problem of school violence and disruption. The recommended program is directly based upon the analyses reported in earlier chapters.

In our judgment, this program represents an effective response to the problem of school violence and disruption. RBS recommends that this approach be adopted, assuming that LEAA is (1) interested in assuming a leadership position in the area of school violence and disruption, (2) willing to initiate a nationwide effort that is responsive to the needs of the educational community, and (3) able to allocate the resources required to initiate this effort.

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PLANNING ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS TO REDUCE SCHOOL VIOLENCE AND DISRUPTION

APPENDICES

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Prepared under Grant No. 76-JN-99-0002 from the National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the author and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the U.S. Department of Justice.

PLANNING ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS TO REDUCE SCHOOL VIOLENCE AND DISRUPTION

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Materials included in the Appendices have been compiled for LEAA staff use and are not an integral part of the final report.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
Appendix A.	BIBLIOGRAPHY OF INFORMATION BASE	A1
	Nature and Extent of Problem	A2
	Current Activities	A7
	Federal Assistance Programs	A22
	Staff Reference	A25
Appendix B.	WORKING CONFERENCES	A28
	Conference Participants	A29
	Agenda	A40
	Worksheets	A41
	Questionnaire	A49
Appendix C.	FEDERAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS	A57
	Right to Read	A58
	Drug Abuse Education	A61
	Civil Rights Technical Assistance	A64
	Dropout Prevention	A69
	Teacher Corps	A72
	ESEA Title III	A79

Appendix A

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF INFORMATION BASE

This Appendix contains:

- Nature and Extent of Problem
- Current Activities
- Federal Assistance Programs
- Staff Reference

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Appendix B

WORKING CONFERENCES

This Appendix contains:

- Conference Participants
- Agenda
- Worksheets
- Questionnaire

TYPES OF EDUCATORS PARTICIPATING

	Philadelphia	Saint Louis	Los Angeles	Total
Students	7	7	7	21
Teachers	2	6	9	17
Superintendents	3	8	4	15
Principals/Project Directors	5	1	4	10
Counselors/Psychologists	2	3	1	6
Parent/Community Organization Representatives	2	3	1	6
Security Directors	2	2	2	6
School Board Members	1	2	2	5
Other: State Ed. Dept. Youth Service Agencies Ombudsman University/Research Legal	4	2	10	16
Total	28	34	40	102

Participants came from 26 states and the District of Columbia, from urban, suburban, and rural districts.

ARIZONA
- Tucson

ARKANSAS
- Little Rock

CALIFORNIA
- Baldwin Park
- Los Angeles
- Menlo Park
- Piedmont
- Sacramento
- San Diego
- San Jose
- Santa Barbara
- Tustin

COLORADO
- Pueblo

CONNECTICUT
- Fairfield

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

ILLINOIS
- Chicago

INDIANA
- Indianapolis
- Jeffersonville

KANSAS
- Shawnee Mission

KENTUCKY
- Lexington

LOUISIANA
- Luling
- New Orleans

MARYLAND
- Rockville
- Upper Marlboro

MICHIGAN
- Detroit

MISSOURI
- Ferguson
- High Ridge
- Kansas City
- Saint Louis
- University City

NEW JERSEY
- Browns Mills
- Newark

NEW YORK
- Albany
- New York City

NORTH CAROLINA
- Charlotte/Mecklenberg

OHIO
- Toledo

OREGON
- Salem

PENNSYLVANIA
- Abington
- Philadelphia
- Pittsburgh

SOUTH CAROLINA
- Columbia

TENNESSEE
- Memphis
- Nashville

TEXAS
- Austin
- Dallas

UTAH
- Salt Lake City

VIRGINIA
- Alexandria

WASHINGTON
- Edmonds
- Tacoma

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WORKING CONFERENCE
REDUCTION OF SCHOOL VIOLENCE

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

September 18, 1975

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WORKING CONFERENCE

REDUCTION OF SCHOOL VIOLENCE

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September 24, 1975

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WORKING CONFERENCE

REDUCTION OF SCHOOL VIOLENCE

Los Angeles, California

September 30, 1975

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WORKING CONFERENCE

REDUCTION OF SCHOOL VIOLENCE

AGENDA

7:30 - 8:30	Breakfast and Introductory Remarks
8:30 - 9:30	Session 1: What is the Current Situation? The Student's Perspective.
9:30 - 11:30	Session 2: How do we Reduce Disruption in Schools?
11:30 - 12:30	Lunch Break
12:30 - 2:30	Session 3: How do we Allocate Resources?
2:30 - 3:30	Session 4: What have we Missed?
3:30 - 4:30	Informal Discussion

WORKSHEET #1 GROUP #: _____

INDIVIDUAL ACTIVITY NAME: _____

What Problems Have You Faced?

Instructions: Based on the preceding discussion, review the problems listed below. Feel free to add new problems, or delete or modify any of the problems listed.

Indicate which problems you have encountered within schools.

Rate the importance of each of the type of problems you have encountered. High indicates most important to solve; low indicates the least important to solve.

	Have encountered in schools		Importance of solving		
Problems:	Yes	No	High	Med	Low
Attacks in Schools Assaults, rapes, and murders of students or staff on school premises are increasing.					
Weapons More weapons (e.g., guns knives) are being carried to school.					
Gangs Gang violence has become well established in schools.					
Intruders Outsiders, including dropouts, truants from other schools, and unemployed youth, terrorize students and vandalize school property.					
Intergroup Clashes Confrontations among racial, social, and ethnic groups have resulted in disruption of the educational process.					
Vandalism Wanton destruction of facilities, equipment, and student projects is prevalent.					
Fear of Violence The climate of fear is pervasive in schools.					

Following the completion of this individual exercise the group will discuss their responses and determine the five most pressing problems.

WORKSHEET #2 GROUP #: _____

GROUP ACTIVITY

Establishment of Priority Problems for the Group

Instructions: In this exercise, consider yourselves members of the same school district.

Each member should share with the group his/her experiences with disruption in schools (worksheet #1).

As a group, determine the five most pressing problems for your district, using your collective experience as a basis. Sequence them in order from most important to least important. Indicate why these were selected.

The recorder should summarize the group discussion on the chart below.

	Major Problems	Reasons for Selection
Most Important	1.	
	2.	
	3.	
	4.	
	5.	

WORKSHEET #3

GROUP #: _____

INDIVIDUAL EXERCISE

NAME: _____

Ways of Reducing Disruptions

Instructions: As an individual member, identify activities or approaches that might be used by schools to address a given problem. If you know of specific persons or places where a given activity is taking place, please identify them in the far right-hand column. Give particular attention to problems ranked highly by your group. A given activity may be appropriate for more than one problem area.

Major Problems	Activities for Addressing the Problem	Persons or Places Using Approach (Optional)

WORKSHEET #4

GROUP #: _____

GROUP EXERCISE

Ways of Reducing Disruptions

Instructions: The recorder should label one of these sheets for each of the group's priority problems.

The recorder should list all the activities which the members of the group have thought of (see worksheet #3). During this part of the exercise, the group should add any other ideas it has.

The group then should review each of the activities and discuss its potential effectiveness at reducing the stated problem. If the group does not reach consensus on the potential effectiveness of an activity, the recorder should note the number of members who support each rating and any reasons for the differences identified.

Problem: _____

Activities for Addressing this Problem	Potential Effectiveness			
	High	Medium	Low	Undecided

WORKSHEET #5

INDIVIDUAL ACTIVITY

GROUP #: _____

NAME: _____

Individual Rating of School Systems' Capability to Solve Priority Problems

Instructions: Write the names of your group's five priority problems in the spaces provided.

Rate the capability of school systems in general to solve each of the problems by placing a check in one of the boxes. For example, if you believe school districts in general have the knowledge and skills and the resources to solve a problem, check the appropriate box in row A. In thinking about the capabilities required to solve each problem, it may be helpful to review the activities listed on worksheet #4.

"Knowledge and skills" refers to: the ability to identify problems, select solutions, or implement selected solutions.

"Resources" refers to: sufficient staff, facilities, equipment and materials.

Rating of School Systems' Capability	Priority Problems 1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
A. School systems have the necessary knowledge, skill, and resources with respect to this priority problem.					
B. School systems have the resources, but lack the knowledge and skills with respect to this priority problem.					
C. School systems have the knowledge and skill, but lack the resources with respect to this priority problem.					
D. School systems lack the knowledge, skills, and resources with respect to this priority problem.					

WORKSHEET #6

GROUP #: _____

GROUP ACTIVITY

Summary of Individual Ratings of School Systems' Capability

Instructions: Recorder should write names of the group's problems in the spaces provided.

The group should discuss individual ratings of school districts' capability to solve each problem. If possible, it should work for a consensus.

At the end of each discussion, the recorder should list the ratings of the group's members. If there was not a consensus, the recorder should state the reasons given for the different ratings by group members.

Rating of School Systems' Capability	Priority Problems 1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
A. School systems have the necessary knowledge, skill, and resources with respect to this priority problem.					
B. School systems have the resources, but lack the knowledge and skills with respect to this priority problem.					
C. School systems have the knowledge and skill, but lack the resources with respect to this priority problem.					
D. School systems lack the knowledge, skills, and resources with respect to this priority problem.					

Reasons for lack of consensus, if any:

WORKSHEET #7 GROUP #: _____

GROUP ACTIVITY

Possible LEAA Role to Help School Districts Reduce Disruptions

Instructions: As a group, you have identified in the last exercise where you think school districts in general lack the knowledge and skills and resources to solve problems of disruption.

In this exercise, identify, as a group, the kinds of roles LEAA could play to help school districts solve the problems of disruption and why you support each role. The group can use the list on the following page as a resource.

The recorder should note the group's views of possible LEAA roles in the space below. The number of members supporting each of the roles should also be recorded.

At the end of the discussion, the group should consider the question at the bottom of the page. The recorder should tally the views of the group and report the results.

* * *

Indicate which funding strategies are appropriate for each of your priority problems.

Should LEAA provide support to aid in the reduction of serious disruptions in schools?

YES ___ NO ___ UNDECIDED ___

EXAMPLES OF FEDERAL FUNDING ALTERNATIVES

- Provide telephone and/or return mail service to educators about alternative ways to cope with specific problems.
- Provide training on a regional basis to schools, law enforcement and other appropriate audiences about effective practices.
- Publish pamphlets for special audiences, e.g., security directors, teachers, principals.
- Provide assistance of qualified practitioners to help local staff to plan, adapt and implement programs.
- Provide funds for school district to continue effective programs.
- Provide funds for school district to plan programs.
- Provide funds to start programs, e.g., equipment, materials, staff training.
- Provide funds to support first-year and/or second-year expenditures other than start-up funds, e.g., staff salaries, facilities, maintenance.
- Evaluate currently operating programs to identify effective practices and programs.
- Provide funds to R&D agencies for development of new programs in collaboration with cooperating school systems.

INDIVIDUAL ACTIVITY

NAME:_____

TITLE:_____

Points We May Have Missed

Instructions: Here are some questions about points that may or may not have been covered in your previous discussions. Feel free to add comments on any question.

1. Given all current problems in schools (e.g., declining enrollments, inadequate finances, student achievement) how would you rate the importance of reducing school violence?

   __ a. First __ b. In Top 3 __ c. In Top 5 __ d. In Top 10

   __ e. Of Lesser Concern

2. Should LEAA efforts to help school districts deal with the problem of school disruption be focused on:

   __ a. All types of crimes

   __ b. Selected crimes

   If you choose b., indicate which crimes LEAA should focus on:

   __ Crimes against persons (e.g., rapes, assaults)

   __ Crimes against property (e.g., vandalism)

   __ Other (specify)_____

3. As a policy, do you feel that LEAA should direct funds to:

__ a. Immediate pressing problems

__ b. Longer range problems

__ c. Both of the above

4. As a policy, should LEAA limit the use of its funds to:

__ a. Controlling existing disruptions in schools (e.g., security procedures)

__ b. Preventing future disruptions in schools (e.g., human relations training)

__ c. Both of the above

5. Given scarce resources, should LEAA limit the use of its funds to helping schools:

__ a. Plan efforts to control and reduce school disruptions

__ b. Handle one-time, start-up costs (e.g., facilities modification)

__ c. Other _____

6. A range of resources exists to help school personnel with local educational problems. In order to provide LEAA with information on the usefulness of these resources for dealing with problems of school violence, use the following list to indicate which resources you have used and which can be adapted to help you with problems of school violence.

NOTE: The resources listed below are those made available by the organization indicated (e.g., school district) and are of three kinds: (1) information, (2) training, and (3) other assistance.	Have you used this resource?		Do you feel this resource can be adapted for use with problems of school violence?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
A. SCHOOL DISTRICT:				
Library/instructional materials center				
District publications/project reports				
District specialists				
B. COLLEGES/UNIVERSITIES:				
Library/Instructional materials center				
Courses/Special purpose workshops, seminars				
Consultant Assistance				
Other (please specify)				

	Have you used this resource?		Do you feel this resource can be adapted for use with problems of school violence?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
C. PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS (LOCAL, STATE, NATIONAL):				
Bulletins/Publications				
Conventions/Meetings				
Telephone information services				
Workshops/Seminars				
D. COUNTY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATIONAL UNITS:				
Library/Instructional materials centers				
Project reports/Publications and newsletters				
Staff specialists				
Workshops/Seminars/Courses				

	Have you used this resource?		Do you feel this resource can be adapted for use with problems of school violence?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
E. STATE EDUCATION AGENCY:				
Project reports/Publications and newsletters				
Staff specialists				
Meetings				
F. FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AGENCIES AND FEDERALLY SPONSORED AGENCIES:				
Superintendent of Documents/Government Printing Office				
ERIC Clearinghouses				
Department of Justice Information Service				
Other _____ (please specify)				

	Have you used this resource?		Do you feel this resource can be adapted for use with problems of school violence?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
G. LOCAL GOVERNMENTAL AGENCIES: (e.g., police, courts)				
_____ (please specify)				
H. PRIVATE ORGANIZATIONS AND AGENCIES: (e.g. R&D organizations, service groups, consulting firms)				
_____ (please specify)				

7. How often have you been involved in federally funded programs *designed to improve* local schools?

__ a. Never

__ b. One program

__ c. Two or three programs

__ d. Four or more programs

8. In what ways should a school district use LEAA funds to reduce school violence?

__ a. Purchase security systems

__ b. Modify facilities

__ c. Provide counseling serivces

__ d. Train staff

__ e. Develop instructional programs

__ f. Increase staff

__ g. Other

9. (Optional for those having experience with federal grants/programs)

Of those agencies which administer federal funds, indicate which you prefer and provide reasons for your preference.

__ a. Federal LEAA agency

__ b. State LEAA agency

__ c. Local LEAA agency

__ d. State education agency

__ e. Other

Reasons:

10. Are you interested in receiving a summary of the findings of this conference?

__ yes

__ no

11. The ABC television network is doing a special on school violence. LEAA and RBS will probably be asked for names of people to contact. Would you be willing to talk to ABC staff?

__ yes

__ no

12. Do you have any recommendations for future conferences we might hold on this topic?

Appendix C

FEDERAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS*

This Appendix contains:

- Right to Read
- Drug Abuse Education
- Civil Rights Technical Assistance
- Dropout Prevention
- Teacher Corps
- ESEA Title III

*Program descriptions are taken from U.S. Office of Education, Office of Planning, Budgeting, and Evaluation, Annual Evaluation Report on Programs Administered by the U.S. Office of Education, FY 1974, Washington, D.C., 1975.

ANNUAL EVALUATION REPORT ON EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Program Name:

Right-to-Read

Legislation:

Cooperative Research Act (P.L. 85-531) as amended

Expiration Date:

FY 1975

Funding History:	Year	Authorization	Appropriation
FY	1971	Indefinite	$ 2,000,000
	1972	Indefinite	12,000,000
	1973	Indefinite	12,000,000
	1974	Indefinite	12,000,000
	1975	Indefinite	12,000,000

Program Purpose and Operation:

The long-range goal of the Right to Read Program is to substantially increase functional literacy in this country. More specifically, the operational goal of Right to Read is to ensure that by 1980 ninety-nine percent of all people under 16 years of age living in the United States and ninety percent of all those over 16 will possess and use literacy skills. The ability to read is essential for one to function effectively as an adult in our society. Yet more than three million adults in the United States are illiterate and approximately 18-1/2 million cannot read well enough to complete simple tasks required for common living needs. Millions of public school children require special instruction in reading. Even after they have completed high school, one-third of the new students in junior colleges need some type of reading help.

Through the demonstration of effective and efficient reading programs and the provision of technical assistance and training, the objective of Right to Read is to help all reading programs to become effective, regardless of the source of funding, the level of instruction or the age of the participant. This program hopes to influence Federal formula grant and discretionary funds as well as State and local funds, and will involve experimental, demonstration, service and capacity-building activities. It will also be responsible for awarding a limited number of grants and contracts.

Program Scope:

The Right to Read Program provided support in various ways for State and local participants during FY 74. By the end of the year, 174 projects had been funded of which 68 were community based and 106 were school based. Thirty-three of the projects were bilingual.

The 68 community based programs were directed toward the out-of-school adolescent population, the young adult and the older adult in need of reading help. Community based programs were much more diverse in type of location, population and program intent, and could be found, for example, in prisons, community colleges, local communities and on reservations.

Thirty-one State Education Agencies have now been funded to develop and implement State-wide plans for the elimination of illiteracy. Key foci are; training local reading directors, providing technical assistance to LEA's, disseminating program information, amassing public support for literacy efforts, conducting exemplary reading projects focused on training, and providing technical assistance designed to stimulate more effective reading programs throughout the State. In addition, five colleges received funds, which provided technical assistance through educational planners and reading consultants, who assisted projects in assessing needs, planning and implementing the reading programs as well as assisting in internal evaluation.

Program Effectiveness:

An evaluative study conducted by Contemporary Research, Inc. of 44 of the 106 school based sites in FY 73 revealed that 28 of the 44 schools met or exceeded the criterion of one month gain in reading achievement for each month of reading instruction. Sixteen of the 44 schools failed to achieve the objective. Factors contributing to lack of achievement of the goal were: (1) request for extension of deadline for post-testing; (2) pre- and post-test data not on the same group of students; (3) many different reading tests used; (4) test data not in conformance with Right to Read requirements; and (5) late submission of test data. The study is of questionable validity because the sample was clearly not representative and the data aggregated were of the "apples and oranges" variety. In addition, the study makes no provision for determining the statistical significance of reported reading gains.

The validation group of the Division of Management Improvement, Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary for Management, Planning and Technology submitted a Validation Study Report on the Right to Read State Program in September 1974, as is customary for the few programs the Secretary selects for priority tracking. The validation group visited four of the 31 funded States and made several recommendations emanating from its primary conclusion that the Right to Read State FY 74 Program objectives were not achieved.

Lessons learned from the 1974 experience suggest:

(1) The need for ongoing technical assistance in the State capacity-building tasks and the resultant need for staff with expertise in State agency operations, training, resource analysis and coordination;

(2) The formulation of a viable liaison between demonstration projects and SEA's in order to facilitate their utilization;

(3) The involvement of Right to Read State Directors in the development of various instruments and materials; and

(4) The need to increase the number of local directors in the training program; and the level of funding for Right to Read.

Ongoing and Planned Evaluation Studies:

An evaluation contract was let November 1973 to Pacific Training and Technical Assistance Corporation, Berkeley *to study* the effectiveness of the Community Based Right to Read Program. The final report of this study is due in November 1974. The findings will be based on a random sample of 24 projects drawn from the FY 74 population of 73 funded projects. The sampled projects involve two distinct models, e.g., 13 projects that serve "in school" youth and 11 projects that serve "out-of-school" adults. The purpose of the study is to discern the reading gains of students and adults in the sampled projects. The results of this study should allow program administrators to make judgments concerning some types of community based projects that are effective for various kinds of participants in various settings.

Source of Evaluation Data:

1. The Information Base for Reading, 1971.

2. Evaluation of School Based Right to Read Sites. Contemporary Research, Incorporated, Los Angeles, California. October 1973.

3. Evaluation of a Sample of Community Based Right to Read Projects. Pacific Training and Technical Assistance Corporation, Berkeley, California. 1973.

4. Briefing Package for the ASE Management Conference. October 23, 1974.

ANNUAL EVALUATION REPORT ON EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Program Name:

Drug Abuse Education

Legislation:	Expiration Date:
Drug Abuse Education Act of 1970 (P.L. 91-527); The Alcohol and Drug Abuse Education Act (P.L. 93-422)	FY 1977

Funding History:	Year	Authorization	Appropriation
	1971	$10,000,000	$ 5,610,000
	1972	20,000,000	12,400,000
	1973	28,000,000	12,400,000
	1974	28,000,000	6,000,000
	1975	26,000,000	—

Program Purpose and Operation:

The principal purpose of the Program is to help schools and communities assess and respond to their drug problems by becoming aware of the nature of the problem and capable of developing strategies aimed at its causes rather th merely its symptoms. The program strongly encourages a coordinated school-community effort.

Grants are awarded to State Departments of Education to assist local educational agencies in planning, development and implementation of alcohol and drug abuse prevention programs.

Grants and contracts support activities such as the following: creative primary prevention and early intervention programs in schools; development, demonstration, evaluation and dissemination of new and improved curricula on the problems of alcohol and drug abuse for use in education programs throughout the Nation; preservice and inservice training programs for teachers, counselors, law enforcement officials and other public service and community leaders; community education programs for parents and others on alcohol and drug abuse problems for parents and others; and projects to recrui train, organize and employ professionals and other persons, including former drug and alcohol abusers, to organize and participate in programs of public education in drug and alcohol abuse.

Program Scope and Effectiveness:

During the 1972-73 project year there were 55 State Education Agency projects which impacted on an estimated 117,000 people through direct service, mostly in education and training, and 3.5 million people through a variety of indirect services, such as mass media efforts and the multiplier

effect of training trainers. With FY 73 funds, OE program personnel continued to provide these types of services, and cooperated with the designated single State Agencies (P.L. 92-455) in the development of comprehensive State prevention plans. During this same period, one National and seven Regional Training Centers trained approximately 1200 community leadership teams of 5 to 8 members each. Finally, 18 college-based and 40 community-based projects furnished education and training to approximately 22,000 youth and adults in schools and in the community; other direct services were provided to over 37,000 young people via hotlines, crisis centers, rap centers, counseling and alternative programs. Most of these projects are continuing to provide services into Fiscal Year 1974 with Fiscal Year 1973 funds.

With Fiscal Year 1974 funds, OE initiated a new school-based team training program. Teams of educational personnel — administrators, teachers, counselors, psychologists — from 338 local education agencies received training and subsequent onsite support through this new program. The training of community-based teams was continued with grants to 248 communities for this purpose. Training for both school and community teams was delivered through the network of 5 regional training centers. A new demonstration program to develop models for training preservice educational personnel was started in six participating colleges and universities. The National Action Committee for Drug Education continued to provide technical assistance to the national program. Two evaluation contracts were let: one for the evaluation of the new school-based training program and the other for the evaluation of the new preservice demonstration program.

Ongoing and Planned Evaluation Studies:

In process are three evaluation projects:

(1) AIR evaluation of the new school-based program;

(2) ABT evaluation of the new preservice demonstration program;

(3) E.H. White evaluation of the 1973 "Help Communities Help Themselves" program involving 900 community teams. This study is supported by the Special Action Office for Drug Abuse Prevention (SAODAP).

In addition, a National Data Base located at the Chicago regional training center is amassing a variety of data on both school and community-based teams.

If funding for 1975 warrants, the Program would propose to fund a project to identify and validate promising drug abuse prevention programs nationwide.

Sources of Evaluation Data:

1. Training for "People" Problems: An Assessment of Federal Program Strategies for Training Teachers to Deal with Drug Education; 1971.

2. Drug Abuse Program Report: Program Evaluation by Summer Interns; 1971.

3. National Study of Drug Abuse Education Programs; 1972.

4. Field Study of Drug Use and the Youth Culture; 1972.

5. An Operationally-Based Information Support System for NDEP; in process.

6. General Research Corp., College and Communities Study; 1974

7. General Research Corp., Minigrant Study; 1974

8. BRX/Shelley, "What Works and Why" project (Fifty Successful Practices); 1974.

ANNUAL EVALUATION REPORT ON EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Program Name:

Training and Advisory Services (Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title IV)

Legislation:

Title IV of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (P.L. 88-352), as amended by the Education Amendments of 1972, P L. 92-318

Expiration Date:

indefinite

Funding History:	Year	Authorization	Appropriation
	1965	indefinite	$6,000,000
	1966		6,275,000
	1967		6,535,000
	1968		8,500,000
	1969		9,250,000
	1970		17,000,000
	1971		16,000,000
	1972		14,600,000
	1973		21,700,000
	1974		21,000,000
	1975		26,700,000

Program Purpose and Operation:

Title IV is designed to provide training and technical assistance related to problems incident to school desegregation. Technical assistance is authorized in the preparation, adoption, and implementation of plans for public school desegregation. Training Institutes are authorized to improve the ability of teachers, supervisors, counselors, and other school personnel to deal effectively with special educational problems occasioned by desegregation. Local school district grants are authorized to give teachers and other school personnel inservice training and to employ specialists to advise in problems incident to desegregation.

There are four categories of assistance provided under Title IV to meet these goals and objectives: General Assistance Centers (usually maintained in colleges or universities), State Education Agencies. Training Institutes (operated by colleges and universities), and direct grants to school boards or school districts.

The $5 million increased appropriation above recent years represents a supplemental for awards to State Education Agencies and General Assistance Centers under an expanded definition of desegregation to include activities designed to alleviate situations such as that highlighted in the Lau v. Nichols decision, ie., situations involving non-English speaking

students who as a result of language deficiencies do not effectively participate in the educational process. Also, the definition of desegregation now includes desegregation on the basis of sex as authorized by section 401 of the Civil Rights Act, as amended by section 906 (a) of the Education Amendments of 1972. Both of these changes are included in a recently published Notice of Proposed Rulemaking to amend the existing Title IV regulations.

Program Scope

In Fiscal Year 1974, Title IV funds and number of award were distributed approximately as follows:

	Percent of Funds	Number of awards
General assistance centers	46%	26
State education agencies	23%	39
Training institutes	21%	47
School district grants	10%	52
	100%	164

The percent of funds in each of these four categories was essentially the same as FY 73
total number of awards was somewhat higher in FY 74 than FY 73 (164 vs. 131), with the increase almost entirely in a doubling of the number of school district grants and more State Education Agency awards.* The trend in recent years towards directing more funds to the North and West continued in FY 74. The percentage of Title IV funds in the North and West** has increased from 31 percent in FY 69 to 57 percent in FY 73 and 64 percent in FY 74. This trend is the result of increased amounts of desegregation activity (primarily through court orders) in the North and West.

Program Effectiveness:

The effectiveness of Title IV must be based primarily on qualitative evidence which is subject to differing interpretations. The major criticisms of the program and steps taken to remedy them (mainly incorporated in program regulations which were adopted in late Fiscal Year 1973) are discussed below. Since there have been few formal evaluations of Title IV and none since those program regulations were adopted, an OPBE Title IV evaluation is now being conducted.

*Comparsions listing the number of FY 74 awards followed by the number of FY 73 awards are: CAC, 26 vs. 27; SEA, 39 vs 34; TI, 47 vs 44; LEA, 52 vs. 26.

**Defined as all current HEW regions except Regions IV and VI and the State of Virginia.

The most recent report -- which helped guide the development of the new Title IV regulations -- was released in January 1973 by the U. S. Commission on Civil Rights. The report critically reviewed the history of the program and recommended several changes in program administration. Among the major criticisms in the report were the observations that the school district projects were primarily directed and staffed by local school district personnel who seldom had influence over school district policies on desegregation, and that the State Title IV units and the university desegregation centers were predominantly staffed by white southerners whose previous education and experience were obtained in segregated southern school systems. One result was that the programs developed with Title IV assistance frequently had been geared to making minority students conform to white middle class values and standards of achievement. On the basis of this and evidence that Title IV grants to LEAs and university desegregation centers had been used to fund training programs in compensatory education without emphasis on the problems desegregation, the report recommended that the Office of Education adopt clear guidelines requiring that the primary emphasis of all projects must deal directly with problems of desegregation and that all Title IV recipients must be required to assure appropriate representation of all racial and ethnic groups, on an integrated basis, in staffing the project. The report also suggested giving priority to adequately funding those project applications that have the highest likelihood that Title IV assistance will be helpful rather than distributing the funds generally as an entitlement program.

Previous evaluations of Title IV had discussed the incongruous roles of the university desegregation centers in attempting both to provide needed technical assistance to desegregating school districts and to provide technical expertise to federal courts in desegregation litigation against school districts. In January 1972 the Office of Education forbade university desegregation centers from continuing to provide this assistance to courts except at the specific request of a school district. The Commission report criticized this change in policy, recommending that the Office of Education "require (Title IV) recipients to offer the full range of their knowledge and experience in helping to devise workable desegregation plans." In monitoring the performance of Title IV recipients, the Commission recommended that the Office of Education withhold further contract payments and use fund recovery mechanisms to force unwilling recipients to participate in the preparation of school desegregation plans and to testify in desegregation litigation.

The Office of Education has acknowledged a number of the criticisms of program administration that were made in the Commission report and earlier reports. In an effort to concentrate program funds on those projects which evidence the greatest potential for facilitating school desegregation, new grant application procedures for FY 73 required applications for State Title IV centers and general assistance centers to provide evidence of requests from school districts for technical assistance

and/or training related to desegregation problems. Appropriate staffing in Title IV projects is now encouraged through application ratings which give more credit to proposals with staff experienced in desegregation assistance and representative in racial or ethnic composition of the population to be served. Also, the new guidelines require school district grantees to employ an experienced advisory specialist who will have direct and frequent access to the district superintendent. Although applications also will receive favorable ratings for having organized plans for self-evaluation, the Commission report's specific recommendation for independent evaluations of all Title IV projects has not been implemented.

The Office of Education responded to the Commission report's criticism of the policy of forbidding Title IV recipients from responding to court requests for assistance by stressing that the program legislation only allows technical assistance to be provided upon the request of a school district and that previous assistance to courts had been provided in the absence of clarification of the legislation. It also said that public and private institutions of higher education must receive equal and fair consideration in funding decisions and that contractual obligations of Title IV recipients have been enforced, resulting in termination of two State Education Agency contracts in FY 72.

Ongoing and Planning Evaluation Studies:

The current evaluation being conducted under contract to OE will address the major issues raised in the Commission's report. This evaluation will assess the effectiveness of Title IV program regulations and guidelines, describe the activities and services provided by Title IV projects, and assess the utility of Title IV training and technical assistance as viewed by the school district personnel receiving assistance from Title IV projects.

The evaluation is being conducted under contract to the Rand Corporation.

Sources of Evaluation Data:

1. DHEW, Equal Education Opportunities, Washington, D. C., 1970 (OE-38017).

2. U. S. Commission on Civil Rights, Title IV and School Desegregation: A Study of a Neglected Federal Program, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, January 1973.

3. Race Relations Information Center, Title IV of the 1964 Civil Rights Act: A Program in Search of a Policy, Nashville, Tenn. ,1970.

4. Washington Research Project, University Title IV Centers, 1971 (Unpublished).

5. DHEW, Review of the Set of Finding Developed by the Education Coalition Concerning the Programs and Operations of the University Title IV Centers, (Unpublished), 1971.

ANNUAL EVALUATION REPORT ON EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Program Name:

Dropout Prevention

Legislation:

Title VIII ESEA, Section 807

Section 107 P.L. 93-380

Expiration Date:

1978

Funding History:	Year (FY)	Authorization	Appropriation
	1969	$ 30,000,000	$ 5,000,000
	1970	30,000,000	5,000,000
	1971	30,000,000	10,000,000
	1972	31,500,000	10,000,000
	1973	33,000,000	10,000,000
	1974	4,000,000	4,000,000
	1975	---	---

Program Purpose and Operation:

The 1967 amendments to ESEA of 1965 established Title VIII, Section 807 to develop and demonstrate educational practices which show promise in reducing the number of children who fail to complete their elementary and secondary education. Funds are granted to local educational agencies to carry out, in schools with high dropout rates and with high percentages of students from families with low-income, innovative demonstration projects aimed at reducing the dropout rate. The program was funded at $5 million beginning in FY 1969, at $10 million in FY 71 and 72; in FY 73 the operating level was $7.5 million. Nineteen projects and two one-year special projects have been funded since the program began.

For the 1969-1970 period, grants were awarded to ten school systems submitting the most imaginative proposals for reducing the number of secondary education students leaving school before graduating. For FY 1971 an additional nine grants were awarded. Each of the funded projects must demonstrate ways for reducing the dropout rates in their school systems as well as providing insights for possible replication of their projects in other school systems. For FY 1973 nineteen were continued at $7.5 million. For FY 1974, nine remaining projects were continued at $4 million.

Counseling services, staff training and curriculum or instructional revision were common activities to all projects. Fifteen projects conducted work-study or other vocational courses; four offered special services for pregnant students: and five placed major emphasis on parental involvement. One project provided a "Personal Development Center" in an off-school facility for holding informal

sessions for students who were unable to relate to conventioml instruction.

In each funded project independent audits of evaluation and management designs were required for the purpose of determining the nature of management and program practices of project personnel. Auditors' interim and final reports, evaluation reports from each project, and the USOE personnel participation provide the basis for gaining insights into the operation and progress of each project.

Program Scope and Effectiveness:

In FY 1974, nine projects were continued at a cost of $4,000,000. In addition, ten projects previously funded and which were due to terminate in FY 1974 are still in operation because of the release of $1.5 million in funds which were impounded. The total number of student participants during the peak of the program is estimated at 60,000. Total staff is estimated at 1,100. Data provided from the projects indicate that the dropout rate has been reduced in the target schools. A current project validation effort is expected to provide definitive data concerning the overall effectiveness of the program. Dropout rates at the beginning of the program for the 19 projects ranged from a low of 5% to a high of 60%. The dropout improvement rate is currently estimated at a median gain of 46% for the 19 projects with a range of about 21% to 99%.

Information about the Dropout Prevention Program comes from two main sources: (1) the Consolidated Program Information Report which provides data primarily upon expenditures and program participation and (2) evaluation reports and individual audits on each local project. The evidence from these reports indicates that the Dropout Prevention Program is well-focused upon its target population and that most projects have been effective in reducing the dropout rate.

The Dropout Prevention Program has demonstrated that it is possible to reduce the dropout rate significantly in schools and school systems which structure themselves along an accountability model. Of the ten projects originally funded in FY 1969, data shows a 45.3% reduction in number of dropouts during a three year period for target groups. These trends are continuing. For nine additional projects funded in FY 1971, the dropout rate went from 12.4% to 8.7% in two years. Recent evaluation reports support these results. The Englewood, Colorado project reports that the dropout rate prior to institution of the project was 15%. During the first year of the project it was reduced to 5%. In the Fall River, Massachusetts project, the rate went from 15.2% to 10.7% in two years. They also report significant increases in reading achievement and self-concept, increased attendance, cooperative planning and decision-making on the part of students, teachers and administrators and parent involvement in decision-making. The Dayton, Ohio project reports that during the year prior to the initial funding of the project, the dropout rate was 18.1%. This year, the dropout rate for the target school was 7.7% but only 2.7% for the students in the dropout program. In Seattle, the project reduced dropout rates from 16.86% in the first year to 5.45% last year. Absenteeism dropped from 62.5% to 32%. At Riverton, Wyoming, the dropout rate has gone from 9.6% to 8.6%

and an almost total absence of vandalism has been noted within the target population. At Oakland, California, Project MACK started with a dropout rate of 12%. The most recently reported rate was 6.5%. Class-cutting was reduced by half and school attendance improved. The Detroit project achieved a decrease of about 38% in the dropout rate during the four years of its existence. Absenteeism decreased by 6% during the past year and expulsions declined by 6%. In Baltimore, the average dropout rate for the public schools as a whole was 13.3%. At the target area for the dropout project, the rate was 12.8% and for the project participants only 6.8%. Attendance improved and 76.1% showed improvement in most achievement areas tested. At Tuskeegee, initial dropout rates of more than 13% are now close to zero because of a unique system of use of parent-counselor aides as attendance officers and counselors.

Gains in dropout reduction are attributed to multi-component approaches which include attempt to raise achievement levels in reading and mathematics, work-study programs involving private industry and other agencies, staff training, improved pupil personnel services, community involvement, and special classes for students considered most dropout prone. Annual dropout project staff leadership conferences have served to disseminate successful practices. A handbook of practices found most useful in reducing dropout has been prepared and is in publication.

Ongoing and Planned Evaluation Studies:

An overall program evaluation and dissemination activity is currently in operation.

Sources of Evaluation Data:

1. FY 1973 reviews of the evaluation and audit reports from the nineteen dropout prevention program -- OE.

2. Consolidated Program Information Report -- OE. (Study under auspices of NCES)

3. Final Evaluation Report, Project Outreach, August, 1972.

4. Results of project validation activity currently in progress.

ANNUAL EVALUATION REPORT OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

Program Name:

Teacher Corps Program

Legislation:

Part B-1 of the Education Professions Development Act (Title V of the Higher Education Act of 1965 as amended (P.L. 89-329) as amended))

Expiration Date:

FY 1979

Funding History:

Year	Authorization	Appropriation
1966	$ 36,100,000	$ 9,500,000
1967	64,715,000	11,324,000
1968	33,000,000	13,500,000
1969	46,000,000	20,900,000
1970	80,000,000	21,737,000
1971	100,000,000	30,800,000
1972	100,000,000	37,435,000
1973	37,500,000	37,500,000
1974	37,500,000	37,500,000
1975	37,500,000	37,500,000

Program Purpose and Operation:

The purposes of the Teacher Corps are (1) to strengthen the educational opportunities available to children in areas having high concentrations of low-income families, (2) to encourage colleges and universities to broaden their programs of teacher preparation and (3) to encourage institutions of higher education and local educational agencies to improve programs of training and retraining for teachers and teacher aides. To achieve this, the Teacher Corps attracts and trains college graduates and upperclassmen to serve in teams under experienced teachers; attracts volunteers to serve as part-time tutors or full-time instructional assistants; attracts and trains educational personnel to provide specialized training for juvenile delinquents, youth offenders, and adult criminal offenders; and supports demonstration projects for retraining experienced teachers and teacher aides serving in local educational agencies. Typical participant activities involve academic work in a college or university, on the job training in schools, and participation in school related community projects. Typical program elements include flexible models of teacher education based on performance criteria, involvement with other college and university departments outside the school of education, granting credit for the internship period, and utilization of regular school staff and members of the community in the teaching staff.

Program Scope:

During Fiscal Year 1974 the Teacher Corps had 94 projects. These projects operated in 158 school districts and in 93 institutions of higher education for a total of 251. Of the 251, 111 were continuing and 140 were new starts. The total participant level remained relatively the same as was for the previous fiscal year (4500). Projects, through differentiated staffing and individualized

instructional activities, directly affected the learning experiences of approximately 125,000 children of whom 47,700 (37.8) were from families with incomes below $3,000. Approximately 80 percent of these children were from elementary schools. Teacher Corps projects impacted on special clientele groups such as bilingual children (69 projects), Indian children (67 projects), and children in training institutions (16 projects). Teacher Corps also ran a special program which encouraged high school and college students, parents and other community residents to serve as tutors or instructional assistants for children in disadvantaged areas.

Program Effectiveness:

A number of evaluation studies provide information and insight about program operation. For example, a survey of June, 1972 Teacher Corps graduates was conducted by Teacher Corps in August, 1972. Seventy percent, or 900 of 1300 graduates responded. About 570 or 63 percent, indicated that they would remain in the field of education with 27% (240) of this group teaching in the school district where they served as interns. Ten percent (90) of the interns had not found teaching positions at the time of the survey.

In addition, the Comptroller General's Office issued a report to the Congress in July, 1972, concerning the assessment of the Teacher Corps program made by the General Accounting Office (GAO). The study consisted of a review of Teacher Corps projects at seven institutions of higher education and the respective participating local education agencies. Also, a questionnaire was sent to all Corps members in the Nation who had completed their internships in 1968 and 1969. A total of 550 responded to the questionnaire. The findings and conclusions are grouped according to the two major program purposes as follows:

1. Strengthening educational opportunities

   The GAO found that the program strengthened the educational opportunities for children of low-income families who attended schools where Corps members were assigned. Corps members provided more individualized instruction, used new teaching methods, and expanded classroom and extracurricular activities. Most of the interns and team leaders believed that children in the schools served by the program had benefited from it. The classroom assistance provided by interns made it possible for regular teachers to devote more time to individualized instruction and make classes more relevant to the needs of the children.

   Some of the Teacher Corps approaches to educating children were continued by the school districts after corps members completed their assignments. Other approaches were discontinued because the school districts either had not determined their usefulness or did not have sufficient staff and financial resources to carry them on. Corps members generally became involved with various types of educational community activities which most Corps members believe had been of benefit to both children and adults. Some believed, however, that the activities were of little or no benefit

due to poor planning and lack of community support. A majority of the interns who graduated from the program remained in the field of education. Most of these interns took teaching positions in schools serving low-income areas.

2. Broadening teacher-training program

The GAO study indicates that the program had some success in broadening teacher preparation programs at institutions of higher education. All seven institutions made some changes in their regular teacher preparation program as a result of the Teacher Corps. Five institutions developed a special curriculum for the Teacher Corps; the other two used existing courses. Most interns believed that their academic coursework was relevant to their needs. The impact of the program was lessened, however, because much of the special curriculum was not made available to non-Teacher Corps students and because institutions had not identified teaching approaches and techniques that would warrant inclusion in their regular teacher preparation programs. The institutions that used existing courses for Teacher Corps students did not determine the effectiveness of these courses in preparing Corps members to teach disadvantaged children.

Another relevant study is the Resource Management Corporation evaluation of Teacher Corps during FY 72. This evaluation covered 70 projects having 2,490 interns. Sixty-three projects with approximately 1900 interns responded to the survey instruments. The major conclusion drawn from this study was that while the Teacher Corps projects had performed fairly well in terms of operating within program guidelines, there were some areas that stood out as meriting attention by program specialists. The academic training offered to interns, for example, was much more inflexible than desired by the program staff. Only 31 percent of the total course-work was open for negotiation by interns, with 69 percent required by the college or project. This finding is considerably different from the 50-50 balance established as a program goal. In addition, interns perceived a lack of communication among groups within a project and cited this as the major problem area for the program.

A further area of concern was in the level of involvement of many advisory councils and of the community in general in project operations. One example was that in 26 projects advisory councils met quarterly or semi-annually. Finally, considerably more projects emphasized change in college training programs as opposed to change in the school systems.

At least one analysis of a particular project -- the Louisville, Kentucky Cycle V Project -- offers further useful insight into program operations and accomplishments. The major thrust of this project was to strengthen educational opportunities in inner-city schools by training 100 Teacher Corps interns to become working partners on facilitating teams. These interns were an integral part of a ten-member teaching team employing humanistic learning processes, relevant curriculum and flexible educational structures. The teaching staffs of six elementary schools were reassigned as necessary so that these schools could be completely restructured around

3 to 6 teaching teams each composed of one experienced coordinating teacher (team leader), another experienced teacher (staff teacher), four Teacher Corps interns, two paraprofessionals, and student teachers when available. Each team instructed approximately 100 children in an open learning environment.

During the first year of the Cycle V Teacher Corps project, only 17% of the elementary classes (grades 2-6) in project schools had an increase of 0.7 year or more in the total reading achievement mean. But, in the second year of the project this percentage had more than tripled to 54% of the classes (grades) having an increase of 0.7 year or more. The percentage indicating a year or more of growth advanced from only 4% to 18%.

Other advantages resulting either totally or partially from Cycle V Teacher Corps include:

1. A lowered pupil-teacher ratio by using differentiated staffing.
2. More creativity and innovation in the schools due to the wide range of backgrounds of Corpsmen.
3. Decreased vandalism and increased school attendance.
4. Communication improved at all levels of instruction.
5. Increased individualization of instruction.
6. Improved pupil attitude toward school and self-concepts according to pre- and post-test data.
7. Increased special programs for children with special needs, e,g., behavior modification classes, enrichment programs, tutorial and remedial classes.
8. Involvement of parents in making curriculum decisions.
9. Training of teachers to use behavioral objectives.
10. Increased counseling services for pupils.
11. An expanding behavior modification program (Swinging Door) initiated by Cycle V interns to encourage students to remain in the School System.
12. Development of a 10-year plan for spreading team teaching and differentiated staffing in the District.
13. Neighborhood School Boards as an integral part of local school decision-making.
14. Closer communication and cooperation between universities and the School District.

15. Establishment of cross-age tutoring.

Ongoing and Planned Evaluation Studies:

A major new study of the impact and effectiveness of Teacher Corps was begun in July, 1972. This was a two phase comprehensive study which concentrated attention and evaluation on measurement of program performance in terms of the ultimate student performance goal. The study focused on assessment and analysis of the impact of the program as measured by three major dimensions — institutional change, enhanced teaching skills and behaviors, and improved classroom learning by students taught by Teacher Corps interns and graduates. Twenty 6th cycle elementary school projects participated in the study. Phase I of the study was completed in June 1974. Phase II was completed in December 1974.

The objective of Phase I of the study was to identify and analyze those combinations of intern background characteristics and training program characteristics that are related to desired teaching skills and attitudes of interns at the end of their training (exit characteristics). Data were collected at 20 Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps projects. The 20 projects represent all of those that prepared interns as elementary school teachers during the period 1971-1975. Data about the training program at each site were obtained by interviews with and completed questionnaires from eleven role groups involved in each project, e.g., team leaders, school principals, school superintendents, higher education personnel, etc. Data about intern teaching characteristics were obtained from a 50 percent stratified random sample of interns (sample N=369). All data about the training programs for interns and the teaching characteristics of interns were gathered in the spring of their second year of teaching. No comparisons were made with comparable groups of teachers in non-Teacher Corps training programs.

Information about the teaching characteristics of interns was gathered in several ways. Each intern was observed three times by an individual trained in the use of classroom observation instruments. To complement the classroom observations, each intern completed a log of his/her professional activities over one week's time. An interview with the intern about activities in the log provided information on how interns prepared lessons, diagnosed pupil needs, and evaluated pupil performance. Additional information was gathered from interns and their team leader by means of several questionnaires.

The conclusions drawn from Phase I of this study are:

1. Background characteristics, and training program characteristics were not good predictors of an intern's exit teaching skills and attitudes:

2. To the extent that intern background characteristics and Teacher Corps training program characteristics are related to intern exit teaching skills and attitudes, it is the Teacher Corps training

program rather than an intern's background characteristics that are most closely associated with his exit teaching skills and attitudes;

3. The training program characteristics most closely associated with intern exit teaching skills and attitudes are:

   a. the pattern of collaborative decision making;

   b. the degree of program integration, e.g., follow-up of course-work in public school setting;

   c. the degree of personalization of the program for interns; and

   d. the community component for interns.

4. The extent that teacher competencies were specified and used by the project was not closely related to any intern exit teaching skill. Other aspects of competency-based teacher education, however, were among the best predictors of intern exit teaching skills. These aspects include collaborative decision making and the personalization of the program for interns; and

5. For Black, Chicano, or White interns studied separately, there were discernible patterns of relationship between intern background characteristics, Teacher Corps training program characteristics, and intern exit teaching skills and attitudes. For example, the community component of the training program for Chicano and White interns was directly related to the ability of these interns to communicate effectively with pupils. Such a relationship did not hold for Black interns.

Source of Evaluation Data:

1. Annual operational data collected by the Teacher Corps Program.

2. United States Office of Education telephone survey of Teacher Corps graduates who completed programs in June, 1972.

3. Assessment of the Teacher Corps Program -- Report to the Congress by The Comptroller General of the United States, July 14, 1972.

4. Full-Scale Implementation of a Process Evaluation System for Programs of the National Center for the Improvement of Educational Systems (formerly BEPD) by Resource Management Corporation, December 1, 1972.

5. Louisville, Kentucky Cycle V. Teacher Corps Project -- A Process Evaluation, June, 1971.

6. A Study of Teacher Training At Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps Projects by Pacific Training and Technical Assistance, Berkeley, January, 1974.

7. Reform and Organizational Survival: The Teacher Corps as an Instrument of Educational Change by Ronald G. Corwin. John Wiley and Sons, 1973.

ANNUAL EVALUATION REPORT ON EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Program Name:

Supplementary Educational Centers and Services; Guidance, Counseling, and Testing

Legislation: Expiration Date:

Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965, as amended — September 30, 1978

Funding History:	Year:	Authorization*	Appropriation
	1966	$100,000,000	$ 75,000,000
	1967	180,250,000	135,000,000
	1968	515,000,000	187,876,000
	1969	527,875,000	164,876,000
	1970	566,500,000	116,393,000
	1971	566,500,000	143,393,000
	1972	592,250,000	146,393,000
	1973	623,150,000	146,393,000
	1974	623,150,000	146,393,000
	1975	623,150,000	120,000,000

Program Purpose and Operation:

Title III provides funds to support local educational projects designed to: (1) develop exemplary educational programs to serve as models for regular school programs and (2) assist the States in establishing and maintaining programs of guidance, counseling, and testing. Under Title III legislation, an innovative project is defined as one which offers a new approach to the geographical area and is designed to demonstrate a solution to a specific need, and an exemplary project is one which has proven to be successful, worthy of replication and one that can serve as a model for other school systems.

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* An amount of 3 percent of funds appropriated is authorized for allotment to outlying areas, to schools operated by the Bureau of Indian Affairs and to overseas dependent schools operated by the Department of Defense.

The underlying rationale for Title III has been attributed to the Task Force on Education, appointed by the President in the summer of 1964. The Task Force believed that substantial educational change had failed to take place not because of scarcity of new ideas and programs, but because the effort to innovate and the mechanisms to disseminate innovative ideas had been on a scale far below the actual need. Title III, through its direct support for innovation, was intended to help meet that need.

Since FY 1971 the states have been responsible for administering 85 percent of the Title III funds by awarding grants to local school districts. Under this State Plan portion of Title III, states qualify for funding by submitting an annual State Plan to the U.S. Commissioner of Education for approval. Funds are then allocated on the basis of a population formula. The only restrictions on the use of the State-administered funds are: (1) 15 percent must be used for projects for the handicapped, and (2) expenditures for guidance, counseling, and testing purposes must be equal to at least 50 percent of the amount expended by each State from funds appropriated for fiscal year 1970 for Title V-A of the National Defense Education Act.

The remaining 15 percent of Title III funds, under Section 306, administered by the Commissioner of Education. These discretionary funds also support local school projects, with awards based on the potential contribution to the solution of critical educational problems common to all or several States.

The Office of Education has attempted to foster more dissemination and replication of exemplary projects through: (1) the "Identification, Validation, Dissemination" strategy, (2) the development of a national diffusion network, and (3) the packaging of projects for installation and replication in other school districts. The "Identification, Validation, Dissemination" strategy (IVD) uses four criteria--innovativeness, effectiveness, exportability, and cost effectiveness--to determine the success of Title III projects. Validated projects become part of a pool of exemplary projects for dissemination to other school districts. The IVD stragegy has resulted in 191 validated projects: 107 in FY 1973 and 84 in FY 1974. Twenty-nine Title III projects, identified and validated by this process have been cleared by the Office of Education Dissemination Review Panel for nationwide dissemination.

Under Section 306 a national diffusion network became operational in FY 1974 with the award of approximately 87 grants. Thirty-three local school districts that had developed a successful program received funds to assist interested school districts in implementing the programs. Grants were also awarded to 54 additional districts to operate as facilitators - assisting districts in their states in the process of selecting a suitable program for adoption and acquiring assistance in implementing the program adopted. The overall purpose of the network is to assure the adoption of the most successful programs of the Office of Education by supporting efforts across State lines, in a short period of time, and at a fraction of the initial development cost.

FY 1974 Section 306 funds supported yet another replication effort through awarding grants to 17 school districts for the replication and installation of six "packaged" educational approaches. The approaches are packaged in such a way that all essential components and implementation guidelines are suffiently detailed to enable school districts to replicate the total educational approach. Fifty-three schools in eleven states began implementing the exemplary programs in the 1974-75 school year.

Program Scope:

In the State Plan portion (85%) of Title III 1703 demonstration projects that involved 7.3 million students directly and 12.4 million students indirectly were funded in FY 1972. In FY 1973, over 1,600 demonstration projects that involved 7.0 million students were funded. Information on FY 1974 is not yet available.

In the federal discretionary portion (15%) of Title III, 630 demonstration projects were funded in FY 1972. In FY 1973, 841 projects were funded, of which 451 were continuations and 390 were new projects. Most of the new projects funded in FY 1973 were concerned with reading readiness (355). The remainder focused on educational technology (24), projects for the handicapped (8) or national dissemination (3). In FY 1974, the emphasis of Section 306 grants (the discretionary portion of Title III) was placed on the dissemination and diffusion of successful educational programs and practices in areas of national concern. Of the 239 grants awarded in FY 1974, approximately 207 were awarded for this purpose; 32 were continuations.

Program Effectiveness

Because both the discretionary and State Plan portions of Title III fund diverse types of programs with a variety of goals, some cognitive and some not, it is not possible to assess overall program effectiveness in terms of students' achievement only. Studies which have been performed concentrate on assessing Title III's effectiveness as a demonstration program; that is, on whether projects are innovative; whether they continue after theusual three-year federal funding period, and whether they are disseminated to and replicated by other schools and districts. Although the data addressing these points is scanty, the evidence available suggests

that the State plan portion of Title III has been moderately successful in these aspects. Because Title III discretionary funds have only been available since FY 71, it is too soon to ascertain the extent of continuation of the projects. The importance of the innovative aspect of Title III is a concern of most groups associated with this program. Concern has been expressed that the program may be emphasizing services rather than innovation, and the President's National Advisory Council (Annual Report, 1969) reported that the original emphasis on innovative and creative programs was losing ground. Kearns (1969) substantiated that point of view. In later reviews, the President's National Advisory Council (Annual Report, 1971, 1972, 1973) found the record more encouraging on the basis of selected projects, but they recommended changing the title to "Title III-Innovation in Education" to bring this major thrust to the fore.

Aspects of the continuation question have been explored in early years by Hearn (1969) and Polemeni (1969), however, the most recent and most thorough examination of this issue was done by Brightman (1971). He studied projects funded between 1966-1969, 1967-1970, and 1968-1971 and found that 64.4% of the projects in the first group was being continued at least in part, 67.0% of the projects in the second group, and 76.0% of the projects in the third group--the average figure for all three groups was 67.1%. Furthermore, he found that for all three-year projects which continued for some time after federal funding, 80.0% of the first group, 84.4% of the second group and 73.7% of the third group were in existence in the Fall of 1971. These data are summarized in the following table.

Time Interval	Percent of Projects Continued for Some Time After Federal Funding Ceased	Percent of Those Projects In Column 1 in Existence In the Fall of 1971
1966-1969	64.4%	80.0%
1967-1970	67.0%	80.4%
1968-1971	76.0%	73.7%
Average	67.1%	79.2%

Whether or not Title III projects have served as models which other schools or districts have adopted fully or in part has been a difficult question for researchers to answer because project people oftentimes do not know whether or not interested parties have in fact been able to replicate their Title III projects. Brightman (1971) found that when school superintendents were asked if their projects had been adopted in full by other school districts, 14.8% answered "YES", 53.0% answered "NO", and 32.2% were uncertain. When asked if the projects had been adopted in part by the other school districts, 45.4% answered "YES", 13.3% answered "NO", while a surprising 41.0% were uncertain. These figures represent superintendents' opinions, which are probably based in most cases on an expression of intent from other districts. No attempt was made in this study to verify that projects had, in fact, been adopted elsewhere in full or in part.

Ongoing and Planned Evaluation Studies:

1. A Study of Change Agent Programs

The Office of Education has contracted with the Rand Corporation to perform a two year evaluation of Title III (both the federal and state portion) along with three other OE demonstration programs. The first year of this study is nearing completion. Rand has analyzed survey data collected by a national sample of 289 projects in 18 states and has summarized the results of 30 case studies in 25 school districts. These data will be combined and synthesized with data collected on federal program management. The final report was completed in April 1975.

The second year of the study will collect data on projects whose federal funding has expired to assess the extent of continuation. The final report of the second year's work is expected in the winter of 1976.

2. Evaluation of the Field Test of Project Information Packages

The Office of Education has contracted with Stanford Research Institute to conduct an evaluation of the replication of packaged educational programs. The purpose of the study is to determine the viability of replicating exemplary education programs via an exportable package. Seventeen school districts that have received ESA Title III Section 306 funds to implement a packaged approach are participating in the study. The study is to take place over a two year period. The first year of the evaluation will focus on the installation and operation of the packaged educational approaches while the focus for the second year of the evaluation will be the impact of the projects on student achievement. Preliminary results are expected in the summer of 1975 while the final report of the field test evaluation is expected in the fall of 1976.

Sources of Evaluation Data:

1. Catalyst for Change: A National Study of ESEA Title III (PACE): University of Kentucky, 1967.

2 PACE: Catalyst for Change, The Second National Study of P.A.C.E. University of Kentucky, 1968.

3. Hearn, Norman. Innovative Educational Programs: A Study of the Influence of Selected Variables Upon Their Continuation Following the Termination of Three Year Title III Grants. 1969.

4. Kearns, Doris. "The Growth and Development of Title III, ESEA, Education Technology, May, 1969, pp. 714.

5 Polemeni, Anthony J. A Study of Title III Projects, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (P.L. 89-531 (89-10)), After the Approved Funding Periods. April, 1969.

6. Norman, Douglas and Balyeat, Ralph. "Whither ESEA III?" Phi Delta Kappan, November, 1973.

7. President's National Advisory Council on Supplementary Centers and Services. PACE: Transition of a Concept, First Annual Report. 1969.

8. _____. The Rocky Road Called Innovation. Second Annual Report, 1970.

9. _____. Educational Reform Through Innovation, Third Annual Report, 1971.

10. _____. Time for a Progress Report Fourth Annual Report, 1972.

11. _____. Annual Report, ESEA Title III, Fifth Annual Report, 1973.

12. _____. Annual Report, ESEA Title III, Fifth Annual Report, 1974.

13. _____. Innovation in Education, bimonthly reports

14. Consolidated Program Information Reports (Office of Education reporting form for program data). (Study under auspices of NCES)

15. Annual State Reports, ESEA Title III.